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GRAMMAR

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GRAMMAR

AS A

SCIENCE

BY

B. F. SISK, M. S.

Author of "Outlines of Grammar and Psychology" and Teacher of Grammar
in the Austin High School.



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PREFACE.

English Grammar is a science and should be dealt with in a scientific manner. The method of procedure should not differ essentially from that in other sciences; the subject-matter only is different. The subject-matter of English Grammar is the English sentence. The learner should be furnished with a variety of sentences which he may study in very much the same way as he would study a variety of plants in Botany or a collection of rocks in Geology. Perhaps the most noticeable thing about a sentence is, that it is made up of words. An investigation of the words will reveal the fact that they are expressions of ideas. Now the mere juggling with empty words is profitless. Hence to make a really scientific classification of words, some knowledge of ideas is needed. The aim of the Introduction and Chapter I. is to furnish this knowledge. Ideas properly related form a thought. Words properly arranged form a sentence—the expression of a thought. *The form of the thought determines the form of the sentence.* No sentence whose meaning is not clear can be intelligently analyzed. The purpose of Chapters XII. and XIII. is to show that the classification of the sentence is determined by, and based upon, the classification of the thought. The main purpose of this book is to lead the student to look through the sentence to the thought, and thereby make sentence analysis truly thought analysis.

Grammar should be studied for at least three reasons:
(1) It disciplines the mind. In regard to this phase

of the subject, Dr. Hinsdale says, "Like the other sciences, grammar has a disciplinary value. The study involves a peculiar exercise of the powers of observation—the forms of words, idioms, and sentences, and of the realities that are behind them, distinctions, meanings, and relations. These forms and relations develop a kind of sense or perception that external objects do not develop. Secondly, the study involves also a vigorous exercise of the logical powers—analysis, abstraction, comparison, inference. Grammar is the application of logic to a large and important class of facts. The powers of thought are developed by studying the relations of objects, external and internal. The first rank far below the second in educational value. It is only when we can employ thought upon general relations, which are always abstract, that we begin to *unsense* or *dematerialize* the mind, and so introduce it to the sphere of scientific thinking." (2) It furnishes the key that unlocks the treasures of literature, and gives us the measure by which we may distinguish good literature from poor literature. It enables us to correct our own language, and gives us the power to express our thoughts in a way that our meaning will not be mistaken. (3) It lays a good foundation for the study of other languages.

The author is indebted for helpful suggestions to Mr. T. G. Harris, Principal of Southwest Texas Normal School, and to Mr. W. S. Sutton, Professor of the Science and the Art of Education, University of Texas.

B. F. SISK.

Austin, Texas, June, 1903.

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FIRST PART.

ETYMOLOGY.

The distinctions between the various parts of speech, between the cases of nouns, the modes and tenses of verbs, the functions of participles, are distinctions in thought, not merely in words.—John Stuart Mill.

INTRODUCTION.

1. The universe is made up of **objects, attributes, and relations**. There is nothing that can not be put into one of these three classes. The "outer world" embraces everything external to one's own mind. The "inner world" includes all that is within one's mind.

2. These **objects, attributes, and relations** furnish the mind with the "raw materials" with which to build up the "inner world," or the world of mind. The mind has access to the outer world by means of the special senses—*sight, hearing, smell, taste, touch, and resistance*. The first knowledge that the mind obtains of the outer world comes through one or more of these gateways. This inner world serves as a guide in the conduct of life. In order that it may keep one in perfect harmony with his environment, it must correspond to the outer world.

3. The mind does its work by **observing, comparing, classifying, and stating the results**. These are the fundamental steps in all science-making.

4. The last and most important step could not be taken without some medium to *express* what in the mind had been *impressed*. The simplest notion that the mind forms corresponding to a thing as a whole is an **idea**. The mental product formed by the mind when it asserts the relation between two ideas is a **thought**. So language had its origin in the desire to express ideas and thoughts. Primarily there is no other use for language.

5. The ideas and thoughts of all people are very much alike. The Frenchman calls an object "gargon"; the Spaniard calls the same object "muchacho"; the Englishman calls the same object "boy"; but the *idea* is the same in all their minds. The different nations use different words to symbolize their ideas, and they arrange the words differently in sentences to express their

thoughts. This brings about a difference in their languages; but their ideas and thoughts are much the same, and all minds think in the same manner.

6. The **word** is used to express the *idea*; the **sentence** is used to express the *thought*; and the **discourse** is used to express a *series of related thoughts*. This gives us the three language-units; the **word**, the **sentence**, and the **discourse**.

Each language-unit has its respective science.

Lexicology is that language study which has for its subject-matter the word.

Grammar is that language study which has for its subject-matter the sentence.

Rhetoric is that language study which has for its subject-matter the discourse.

Grammar deals with words only with reference to their properties, classification, and use in sentences. It follows that grammar has two departments: **etymology** and **syntax**.

Etymology is that department of grammar which treats of the properties, classification, and use of words in sentences. This department is often called simply "parts of speech."

Syntax is that department of grammar which treats of the structure, classification, and use of sentences.

Since the word is a simpler unit than the sentence, etymology will be taken up before syntax.

EXERCISE I.

1. Explain what is meant by the "outer world"; the "inner world."
2. Consult the dictionary for the meaning of the words, "object," "attribute," and "relation."
3. Of what use is the "inner world"?
4. What are the steps in making a science?
5. What is the origin of language?
6. What is the use of language?
7. How do languages differ?
8. Name the three "language-units" and their respective sciences.
9. Define *lexicology*, *grammar*, and *rhetoric*.
10. Name the two departments of grammar and define each.

CHAPTER I.

CLASSES OF IDEAS.

OBJECTS.

7. It is stated in the Introduction that the universe is made up of **objects**, **attributes**, and **relations**. All ideas, formed by the mind in the contemplation of these things, may be put into three classes—**object-ideas**, **attribute-ideas**, and **relation-ideas**—corresponding to the three classes of things external to the mind.

8. The **object-idea**, often called the **object of thought**, or simply the **object**, means any idea about which the mind may affirm something. The **object of thought** may correspond either to a **material object** or an **immaterial object**. A **material object** is an object which has spatial relations and whose attributes affect the senses; as, *tree, rock, desk, etc.* An **immaterial object** is an object that has no spatial relations and whose attributes do not affect the senses; as, *truth, spirit, thought, etc.*

9. For grammatical purposes **objects of thought** are divided into two classes, **concrete** and **abstract**. A **concrete object of thought** is one thought of as having attributes; as, *spirit, tree, horse, etc.* An **abstract object of thought** is the idea of an attribute considered apart from its object; as *goodness, truth, playing, etc.*

EXERCISE II.

In the following sentences point out the words which suggest objects, and tell whether the objects are material or immaterial; concrete or abstract.

1. The dog is a faithful animal.
2. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.
3. The spirit of man is immortal.
4. I am he whom ye seek.

5. Put away your fear.
6. Love is the mainspring of all human activity.
7. Shakespeare's life was a success.
8. Why stand ye here idle?
9. How beautiful is the light of the sun!
10. Hope springs eternal in the human breast.

ATTRIBUTES.

10. An **attribute** is a mark or characteristic of an object by which the object is known. **Attributes** are divided into three classes: **qualities**, **conditions**, and **actions**.

11. An **attribute of quality** is a mark or characteristic which remains permanent in the idea to which it belongs; as, *good man*, *long river*, etc.

12. An **attribute of condition** is an attribute that distinguishes the object to which it belongs by its relation to itself at some other time; as, *muddy water*, *hot stove*, *sick man*, etc.

13. An **attribute of action** is an attribute which distinguishes the object to which it belongs by what it does; as, a *whistling porter*, a *trotting horse*, the lady *sings*, etc.

EXERCISE III.

In the following sentences point out the words suggesting attributes. Tell whether the attributes are *qualities*, *conditions*, or *actions*.

1. Cold water is pleasant in summer.
2. The crow is black.
3. A good student will learn.
4. The sick man was moved to the hospital.
5. The streets are dusty in summer and muddy in winter.
6. She gave him a wilted rose.
7. The little children are playing.
8. The running brook babbles softly.
9. We saw a man digging a well.

RELATIONS.

14. A **relation** is the connection the mind sees between two ideas. Relations are of two kinds: **co-ordinate** and **subordinate**.

A **co-ordinate relation** is a relation existing between ideas of equal rank, or between thoughts of equal rank; as, *John and James study*, and *Henry is a lawyer, but his brother is a doctor*.

A **subordinate relation** is a relation existing between ideas or thoughts of unequal rank; as, *The book is on the table*, and *I will do the work if he will let me*.

NOTE.—Two **ideas** or two **thoughts** are equal in rank if they are independent of each other. They are unequal in rank if one limits the other.

EXERCISE IV.

In the following sentences point out the words which suggest relations, and in each case explain whether the relation is co-ordinate or subordinate.

1. Bread and milk is a good food.
2. Henry and James go to school.
3. A man is not quite a brute if he can blush.
4. If I were you, I would study.
5. He is neither old nor infirm.
6. They cook and eat in the same room.
7. The book which I loaned you, and which you lost, was a present from my father.
8. Not a truth has to art or to science been given,
But brows have ached for it, and souls toiled and
striven.—Lytton.

SUMMARY.

15. Following is an outline of the idea:

THE IDEA.

- I. Definition.
- II. Classes.
 1. Objects of Thought.
 - (1) Concrete.
 - (2) Abstract.
 2. Attributes.
 - (1) Qualities.
 - (2) Conditions.
 - (3) Actions.
 3. Relations.
 - (1) Co-ordinate.
 - (2) Subordinate.

EXERCISE V.

In the following sentences, point out the words suggesting objects; those representing attributes; and those showing relations. Classify, according to the above outline, the objects, the attributes, and the relations.

1. The judge rode slowly down the lane.
2. Still sits the schoolhouse by the road.
3. Pittsburg is called "The Smoky City."
4. He sings to the wide world, and she to her nest,
In the nice ear of nature which song is the best?
5. Love and hate rule all human beings.
6. Corn is a species of grass.
7. A very poor woman stood wringing her hands.
8. Whom the gods love die young.
9. He who is his own lawyer has a fool for his client.
10. The old are cautious, the young are venturesome.
11. Mindful of the unhonored dead, Gray wrote his *Elegy*.
12. The prompt and regular are here; the careless and uncertain are absent.
13. The true friend will sometimes be considered unkind; the false will always flatter and fawn.
14. The evil that men do lives after them; the good is oft interred with their bones.
15. Men's evil manners live in brass; their virtues we write in water.

CHAPTER II.

CLASSES OF WORDS.

16. A word is the expression, or sign, of an idea. Since there are three general classes of ideas, there must be, also, three general classes of words corresponding to them. The three general classes of words are **substantive words, attributive words, and relational words.**

17. A **substantive word** is a word which represents an object. The word, substantive, literally means *standing under*. The object was thought of as *standing under* and supporting its attributes.

There are two kinds of substantive words: **nouns and pronouns.** A **noun** represents an object by naming it;

as, *John, man, tree, etc.* A **pronoun** represents an object without naming it; as, *he, they, it, etc.*

18. An **attributive word** is a word which expresses an attribute. Attributive words are divided into three classes: **adjectives, adverbs, and attributive verbs.** An **adjective** is an attributive word which expresses an attribute of an object without asserting it. In the sentence, *Large men are strong*, "large" and "strong" are adjectives expressing attributes of the objects represented by the noun "men."

An **adverb** is an attributive word which expresses an attribute of an attribute or of a relation. In the sentence, "The water is running very swiftly just below the bridge," "swiftly" is an adverb expressing an attribute of the attribute *running*, and "just" is an adverb expressing an attribute of the relation expressed by "below."

An **attributive verb** is a word which expresses an attribute of an object by asserting it. In the sentence, *The boy studies*, "studies" asserts the attribute which may be expressed with an adjective; as, *The boy is studious.*

19. A **relational word** is a word which expresses a relation. There are three classes of relational words: **conjunctions, prepositions, and copulative verbs.**

A **conjunction** is a relational word which expresses a relation between ideas of equal rank, or between thoughts of equal or of unequal rank; as, *John and James will learn if they study.*

A **preposition** is a relational word which expresses a relation between ideas of unequal rank; as, *The book on the table is a reader.*

A **copulative verb** is a relational word which asserts the relation between the subject-idea and the predicate-idea; as, *The boy is small.*

20. We have now classified all the words that enter into the structure of the sentence; but there are two classes of words which have ceased to represent definite ideas, but they are used in speech. They are the **interjections and expletives.**

An **interjection** is a word used to express emotion or feeling, but represents no definite idea. The same interjection may express a variety of emotions. *Ah, fie, pshaw*, are interjections.

An **expletive** is a word without meaning used to change the form of the sentence, or used simply as an introductory word. The italicized words in the following sentences are expletives:

1. *It* is wrong to steal.
2. *There* are ten dimes in a dollar.
3. *Well*, I must leave you.
4. *Now*, do not act so.
5. He said *that* John would go.

SUMMARY.

21. Compare the following outline of the word with the outline of the idea (15).

THE WORD.

- I. Definition.
- II. Classes.
 1. Substantive.
 - (1) Nouns.
 - (2) Pronouns.
 2. Attributive.
 - (1) Adjectives.
 - (2) Adverbs.
 - (3) Attributive Verbs.
 3. Relational.
 - (1) Conjunctions.
 - (2) Prepositions.
 - (3) Copulative Verbs.

22. The sentence is called speech. Words that enter into the structure of the sentence are called "parts of speech" because they are parts of the sentence. A strict classification will give only seven parts of speech as the outline will show. But the **interjection** is usually classed as a part of speech, because it expresses an attribute of *feeling* and, perhaps, to some extent it colors the thought expressed by the sentence. Although the interjection is found associated with the sentence, it has no syntactical relation with it.

23. The **expletive** is never classed as a separate part of speech because its expletive use is only a secondary use. Such words, in their regular functions, are adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, or prepositions.

24. Words should be classed according to their general use in the sentence and not according to an occasional use. In the sentence, *He has a gold watch*, "gold" is a noun used attributively; the adjective form is *golden*. In the sentence, *The wicked shall be punished*, "wicked" has an attributive use and a substantive use, but it should be classed as an adjective used substantively. The regular use of "wicked" is to express an attribute and not an object. The noun form of "wicked" is *wickedness*.

25. We have now laid the foundation for the "parts of speech," based upon their use in the sentence. We find that there are seven classes of words properly called "parts of speech": **nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions**—and two other classes of words—**interjections and expletives**—that have no syntactical relations.

EXERCISE VI.

In the following sentences, classify all the words and give the reasons for your classification:

1. Hard study made this man a scholar.
2. Is your name Shylock?
3. The ambitious strive for fame.
4. He fears to give a farthing to the poor.
5. Men's opinions differ.
6. They called him John.
7. Brevity is the soul of wit.
8. A clear conscience is a good pillow.
9. There are four pecks in a bushel.
10. He says that it is wicked to lie.
11. He turned and left the room.
12. Whom seek ye here?
13. Oh! how beautiful this sunset is!
14. Hurrah! we have a holiday.
15. And her modest answer and graceful air,
Show her wise and good as she is fair.

16. Ah, well! for us all some sweet hope lies
Deeply buried from human eyes.
17. When shall we three meet again?
18. None knew her but to love her;
None named her but to praise.
19. Carve your name on hearts, and not on marble.
20. We Americans must all be cuckoos, for we build our
homes in the nests of other birds.

REVIEW.

26. Practice in making accurate definitions promotes clearness in thinking. Grammar offers ample opportunity for this sort of work. Much oral work should be done in connection with the work laid out in the text. Much drill is essential to thoroughness.

1. Define **object** and distinguish between a **material object** and an **immaterial object**; between a **concrete object** and an **abstract object**.

2. Define **attribute** and explain the three classes of attributes.

3. Define **relation** and make plain the difference between **co-ordinate** and **subordinate** relations.

4. What is an **idea**? A **word**?

5. What is **speech**? A **sentence**?

6. Upon what are the **parts of speech** based?

7. How many **parts of speech** are there? Why not have a different number?

8. Consult a dictionary for the literal meanings of **interjection** and **expletive**, and then tell why they should or should not be classed as **parts of speech**.

9. Name the **parts of speech**, and define each.

10. What is meant by **Etymology** as a division of grammar?

CHAPTER III.

THE NOUN.

27. A **substantive word** is a word which expresses an object. On the basis of the manner in which the object is expressed, substantive words may be put into two classes: **nouns** and **pronouns**. Pronouns will be studied in the next chapter.

28. A **noun** is a substantive word which expresses an object by naming it.

In the following sentences point out, (1) the nouns

that name individual objects, (2) the nouns that are class names, (3) the nouns that name collections, (4) the nouns that name substances, (5) the nouns that name attributes.

1. Whittier wrote "Snow-bound."
2. Austin is the capital of Texas.
3. Copper is found in Michigan.
4. The robin and the wren are small birds.
5. A white lie soon loses its complexion.
6. Industry will bring its reward.
7. The audience is large every Sunday.
8. The hyacinth has fragrance.
9. A swarm of bees just passed over.
10. The two armies rushed together.

29. The two classes into which nouns are usually divided are **proper** and **common**.

A **proper noun** is a noun that names its object in such a way as to distinguish it from other similar objects; as, *John Smith, Ohio River, etc.* It is a name that applies only to an individual object, therefore, it has no sub-classes.

IN ENGLISH ALL PROPER NOUNS AND WORDS DERIVED FROM THEM SHOULD BEGIN WITH CAPITAL LETTERS.

Proper nouns become **class nouns** when they are used to represent a class of objects; as,

"Where are the Websters and Clays of to-day?"

30. The term **common noun** includes all nouns that are not individual names. The **common noun** is usually subdivided into four classes: **class nouns**, **collective nouns**, **mass nouns**, and **abstract nouns**.

This classification is more convenient than scientific. **Concrete nouns** are not mentioned as such at all. Probably a more scientific classification of the noun can be made by examining the mind's way of contemplating the objects themselves.

31. The first objects of thought arose in the mind through the act of perception. The external objects were viewed as having *shape, size, color*, and other attri-

butes; hence they were looked upon as being composites, or **concrete objects**.

The cognition of attributes as belonging to objects gave rise to such primitive judgments, as *Snow is white*; *Rocks are hard*; *Horses trot*; *etc.* These are examples of the kind of judgments first formed by the mind. The attributes, *whiteness, hardness, trotting, etc.*, when they are considered apart from their objects, become **abstract objects of thought**. The name of a concrete object is a **concrete noun**. The name of an abstract object is an **abstract noun**.

32. The mind may view **concrete objects** in four ways:

1. As individual objects. The name given to an individual object to distinguish it from other like objects is a **proper noun**; as, *John, Mary, Austin*.

2. As grouped in classes on the basis of a common attribute. A name given to all the objects in a class is a **class noun**; as, *boy, girl, city*.

3. As a whole whose parts are similar individuals. A name given to a whole whose parts are similar individuals is a **collective noun**; as, *army, flock, audience*.

4. As substance without regard to any individual elements composing it; as, *water, iron, space, wood, time*. A name given to a substance, considered simply as substance, is a **substance noun**, or a **mass noun**.

33. An **abstract noun** is a noun which expresses an attribute. Abstract nouns are subdivided into three classes to correspond to the three classes of attributes; viz., abstract nouns expressing **attributes of quality**, abstract nouns expressing **attributes of condition**, and abstract nouns expressing **attributes of action**.

Abstract nouns are formed:

1. From **adjectives**; as, *whiteness* from *white*; *honesty* from *honest*; *badness* from *bad*.

2. From **verbs**; as, *belief* from *believe*; *running* from *run*; *judgment* from *judge*.

3. From **nouns**; as, *knavery* from *knave*; *manhood* from *man*.

EXERCISE VII.

1. Write the abstract noun corresponding to each of the following words:

long	please	learn	hard
pure	proud	sweet	temperate
weak	judge	bright	beautiful
deceive	warm	cold	true
false	just	high	dull
wise	ignorant	mean	shy
angry	sly	sorry	joyous

2. Write the words from which the following abstract nouns were formed:

life	death	wisdom	government
youth	happiness	beauty	softness
darkness	motion	silence	existence
depth	growth	grandeur	drunkenness

NOTE.—Abstract nouns become concrete when personified; as, "*Wisdom* hath builded her house, she hath hewn out her seven pillars."

SUMMARY.

34. We may now make an outline of the noun as far as we have studied it.

THE NOUN.

- I. Definition.
- II. Classes on basis of meaning.
 1. Proper.
 2. Common.
 - (1) Class.
 - (2) Collective.
 - (3) Mass.
 - (4) Abstract.
- III. Classes on basis of the way in which the mind views objects.
 1. Concrete
 - (1) Proper.
 - (2) Class.
 - (3) Collective.
 - (4) Mass.
 2. Abstract.
 - (1) Of Quality.
 - (2) Of Condition.
 - (3) Of Action.

EXERCISE VIII.

In the following sentences, point out the nouns and classify them according to the preceding outline:

1. John is a boy of small size.
2. The cow is a useful animal.
3. The girl's cheeks are rosy.
4. Silver and gold have I none.
5. Flesh and blood can not enter the Kingdom of Heaven.
6. Truth is stranger than fiction.
7. Is Charles a stranger to truth?
8. Cheerfulness blesses all whom it affects.
9. The cold days of winter have come.
10. The thunder frightened the herd of cattle.
11. A flock of wild ducks are in the pond.
12. Henry saw a covey of grouse.
13. How fleet is a glance of the mind!
14. In the early twilight of Thanksgiving Eve came Laurence, and Clara, and Charley, and Little Alice, hand in hand, and stood in a semicircle 'round Grandfather's chair.—Hawthorne.
15. How little they knew of the depth, and the strength, and the intenseness of that feeling of resistance to illegal acts of power, which possessed the whole American people!
16. Cowards die many times before their deaths;
The valiant never taste of death but once.—Shakespeare.
17. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.—Shakespeare.
18. "So nigh is grandeur to our dust,
So near is God to man,
When Duty whispers low, 'Thou Must,'
The Soul replies, 'I Can.'"
19. That that that you used should have been which.
20. At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk lay dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.—Halleck.
21. The Chinese pitcher-plant is quite common in Ceylon, where it is called the monkey-cup, because the monkeys sometimes open the lid and drink the water when there is no spring of water where they can quench their thirst.
22. On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.
23. Goodness and mercy shall follow them all the days of their life.
24. The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour:
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.—Gray.

25. Know then thyself, presume not God to scan,
The proper study of mankind is man.—Pope.
26. Vice is a monster of so frightful mien,
As, to be hated, needs but to be seen;
Yet seen too oft; familiar with her face,
We first endure, then pity, then embrace.—Pope.
27. Jay Gould has been called the Croesus of America.
28. Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest.
29. Hence, vain deluding joys,
The brood of folly without father bred.—Milton.
30. Manners have been somewhat cynically defined to be a contrivance of wise men to keep fools at a distance.

GRAMMATICAL PROPERTIES OF THE NOUN.

PERSON.

35. In the following sentences, state the relation of the object represented by each italicized word, to the author of the sentence:

1. *I, John*, saw these *things*.
2. *James*, the *bell* has rung.
3. *You girls* may arrange the chairs while the *boys* are making a *fire*.
4. *Our friends* will soon be here.

36. A careful study of the italicized words will show that an object, represented by a substantive, may bear any one of three relations to the author of the sentence; namely, identity, person addressed, person or thing spoken of. Since there are three relations with reference to the author of the sentence, there are, also, three corresponding grammatical persons: **first person**, **second person**, and **third person**.

37. **Person** is that property of the substantive which shows the relation that the object, represented by the substantive, bears to the author of the sentence.

38. The **first person** is that person which shows that the object, represented by the substantive, is the author of the sentence.

39. The **second person** is that person which shows that the object, represented by the substantive, is addressed by the author of the sentence.

40. The **third person** is that person which shows that the object, represented by the substantive, is spoken of by the author of the sentence.

41. This property is indicated in nouns by the relation the object expressed bears to the author of the sentence, and not by any change in the form of the word.

Most nouns are of the third person.

42. A noun of the first person can have but one construction in the sentence: apposition with a pronoun of the first person; as "*I, John, saw these things.*"

43. A noun of the second person can have but two constructions in the sentence: apposition with a pronoun of the second person, and nominative absolute by direct address; as, "*You, John, may go,*" and "*John, the bell has rung.*"

EXERCISE IX.

In the following sentences, tell the person of each substantive:

1. It is I, be not afraid.
2. I am he whom ye seek.
3. You are the man wanted.
4. I who am your friend love you.
5. We Americans are proud of our country.
6. Do not tell on us boys.
7. I hurt myself.
8. Fellow citizens, lend me your ears.
9. He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.
10. Father, hear me, your child pleads for mercy.

NUMBER.

44. Tell how many forms each noun in the following examples has, and whether each form denotes one or more than one:

boy	church	box	veto	a deer
boys	churches	boxes	vetoes	two deer

45. **Number** is that property of a substantive which shows whether it represents one object or more than one.

It follows that there are two grammatical numbers in English: **singular number** and **plural number**.

46. Singular number is that number which shows that the substantive represents but one object.

Plural number is that number which shows that the substantive represents more than one object.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

47. Most nouns add *s* or *es* to the singular to form the plural; as,

book	hat	pin	kiss	bench
books	hats	pins	kisses	benches

When the *s*-sound can be added without making an additional syllable *s* alone is used; but when the *s*-sound makes an additional syllable, *es* is used. This happens when the singular ends in *s*, *z*, *x*, *sh*, and *ch* (soft); as, *hiss*, *hisses*; *adz*, *adzes*; *dash*, *dashes*; *church*, *churches*.

48. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel form their plurals regularly; *boy*, *boys*; *monkey*, *monkeys*; when the singular ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, *es* is added after changing *y* to *i*; as, *lady*, *ladies*; *story*, *stories*; *fly*, *flies*.

49. A few nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plurals by adding *es*, after *f* or *fe* has been changed to *v*: *wife*, *wives*; *life*, *lives*; but most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plurals by adding *s* to the singular: *fife*, *fifes*; *cliff*, *cliffs*.

50. The following nouns ending in *o* add *s* to the singular to form the plural:

alto	cuckoo	proviso	zero
bravo	nuncio	soprano	two
canto	octavo	solo	folio
duodecimo	portico	stiletto	portfolio
cameo	quarto	tyro	lasso
embryo	piano	halo	trio

51. The following nouns ending in *o* add *es* to the singular to form the plural:

buffalo	flamingo	negro	torpedo
calico	grotto	potato	manifesto
cargo	hero	tomato	embargo
domino	mosquito	tornado	mulatto
echo	motto	volcano	veto

52. A few nouns still form their plurals by adding *en*; as, *ox, oxen; child, children; brother, brethren*.

53. Some nouns, because they are the names of objects consisting of more than one part, are used only in the plural:

aborigines	drawers	pincers	tongs
annals	fireworks	dregs	scales
ashes	pliers	rickets	trousers
assets	mumps	scissors	tweezers
breeches	nippers	shears	victuals
clothes	nuptials	snuffers	vitals

54. Abstract nouns and mass nouns usually have no plurals:

honesty	purity	bread	dirt
pride	knavery	milk	molasses
goodness	childhood	mud	water

55. Collective nouns become class nouns when pluralized. Collective nouns in the singular may be treated as if they were plural when the individuals composing the collection are thought of; as, "The committee were unable to agree."

56. Some nouns from foreign languages have two plurals *with the same meaning*:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
	(English)	(Foreign)
formula (Lat.)	formulas	formulae
dogma (Gr.)	dogmas	dogmata
cherub (Heb.)	cherubs	cherubim
bandit (It.)	bandits	banditti
beau (Fr.)	beaus	beaux

57. Some nouns have two plurals *with different meanings*:

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>First Plural.</i>	<i>Second Plural.</i>
brother	brothers (by birth)	brethren (community)
cloth	cloths (kinds of cloth)	clothes (garments)
cow	cows (individuals)	kine (a herd)
die	dies (for stamping)	dice (for gaming)
fish	fishes (individuals)	fish (collective)
fowl	fowls (individuals)	fowl (collective)
genius	geniuses (men)	genii (spirits)
index	indexes (of books)	indices (in algebra)
medium	mediums (persons)	media (things)
memorandum	memorandums (books)	memoranda (notes)
pea	peas (individuals)	pease (collective)
penny	pennies (by number)	pence (by value)
shot	shots (discharges)	shot (balls)
staff	staffs (military)	staves (sticks)

58. A few nouns have the same form in both numbers:

bellows	gross	means	species
corps	grouse	odds	sheep
deer	hose	series	swine

59. A few nouns form their plurals by changing the vowel sound of the word:

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
man	men	tooth	teeth
woman	women	mouse	mice
goose	geese	foot	feet

60. Certain nouns ending in *ics*, derived from Greek adjectives, are always used in the singular; as, *politics*, *ethics*, *physics*, *optics*, *mathematics*. *Logic* omits the *s*.

61. Some nouns have in the plural one form *with two meanings*:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
custom	customs;	(1) habits; (2) revenue duties
letter	letters;	(1) of alphabet; (2) literature
number	numbers;	(1) in counting; (2) in poetry
pain	pains;	(1) sufferings; (2) care
part	parts;	(1) divisions; (2) abilities.

62. Compound words usually add the sign of the plural to the principal word. Three varieties may be noticed.

(a) The following compound words pluralize the first part:

son-in-law	attorney-at-law	knight-errant
father-in-law	billet-doux	man-of-war
aid-de-camp	commander-in-chief	court-martial

(b) The following compound words pluralize the last part:

court-yard	fisherman	gentleman
Englishman	forget-me-not	maid-servant
fellow-servant	goose-quill	tooth-brush

(c) The following pluralize both parts:

man-servant	woman-singer	man-singer
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REMARK.—The following, not being compounds of the noun *man*, add *s* to form the plural:

Brahman	Mussulman	Norman
German	Ottoman	talisman

63. Letters, figures, and signs add the (') and *s* to form the plural; as, Dot your i's and cross your t's: Cancel your 7's.

Write the plurals of the following:

s, t, =, —, 9, x, §, a.

64. When a title is prefixed to a proper name, the compound may be made plural by pluralizing either the title or the name, but not both; as, the *Misses Smith*, or the *Miss Smiths*. The title is pluralized when it is used with two or more names; as, *Messrs. Smith and Wilcox*.

65. The following nouns taken from foreign languages retain their original plurals. They are in common use and should be learned:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
alumnus	alumni	larva	larvæ
alumna	alumnae	radius	radii
animalculum	animalcula	vertex	vertices
erratum	errata	axis	axes
stratum	strata	basis	bases
analysis	analyses	phenomenon	phenomena
crisis	crises	ellipsis	ellipses
criterion	criteria	thesis	theses
dictum	dicta	datum	data
nebula	nebulae	hypothesis	hypotheses

66. A noun modified by a numeral adjective sometimes omits the sign of the plural; as, two *yoke* of oxen, six *head* of cattle, etc.

EXERCISE X.

In the following list of sentences, correct those that are incorrect and justify those that are correct.

1. Eight men were plowing in the field.
2. Five dollars a day are too much to pay them.
3. Five times six are thirty.
4. Five plus six equals eleven.
5. The committee has made its report.
6. The jury have handed in their verdict.
7. Mr. Littlefield bought ten heads of cattle.
8. John has a three feet rule.
9. Five cents is a small sum of money.
10. The box contains six pairs of gloves.
11. The jury are disputing over the different datum given if.
12. A strata of rocks is a good subject for a theses.
13. The earth turns on its axes.
14. The audience were seated in rows.

GENDER.

67. Tell what the italicized words in the following sentences indicate with reference to the sex of their objects:

1. The *boy* lost *his* *pencil*.
2. The *girl* has torn *her* new book.
3. *Julia's* parents love *her*.
4. *He* loves *his* friends.

68. It will be observed that "boy" represents a male object; that "girl" represents a female object; that "parents" represents both a male object and a female object; that "pencil" represents a sexless object. The property of substantive words which distinguishes with reference to sex is called **gender**. It follows that there are four genders: **masculine**, **feminine**, **common**, and **neuter**.

69. **Masculine gender** is that gender which shows that the substantive word refers to an object of the male sex; as, *boy*, *man*, *James*.

70. Feminine gender is that gender which shows that the substantive word refers to an object of the female sex; as, *girl, aunt, Mary*.

71. Common gender is that gender which shows that the substantive word refers either to a male object or to a female object, or to both; as, *friend* (either male or female), *parents* (both male and female).

72. Neuter gender is that gender which shows that the substantive word refers to an object which has no sex; as, *book, desk, rock*.

73. Discussion.—At this point, a clear distinction between the meaning of the terms "*sex*" and "*gender*" should be made. The terms are not synonymous. *Sex* is a characteristic of *some objects*, while *gender* is a property of *all substantive words*.

Those grammarians who do not distinguish between *sex* and *gender* seem to think that "common gender" implies an absurdity, and accordingly, they reject the term. If they will examine their definition for "common noun" their difficulty will disappear. "A *common noun* is a name that represents all the objects in a class." If that class be made up of objects of the male sex, then the "common noun" is masculine gender; if that class be made up of objects of the female sex, then the "common noun" is feminine gender; but if that class be made up of both male objects and female objects, then the "common noun" is "common gender" for the same reason that it is a "common noun"—it represents all the objects in the class and is, therefore, "common" to the two sexes.

Some authors have rejected the term "*neuter gender*" on the ground that "*it does not distinguish with reference to sex.*" But nouns of neuter gender *do* distinguish their objects with reference to sex. They show that their objects have *no* sex, and by doing so they distinguish them from objects that *have* sex. *Neuter gender* literally translated means *neither kind*, and the meaning intended by grammarians is that nouns of *neuter gender* represent objects of *neither kind* of sex-objects; but that they represent sexless objects.

74. Often in speaking of very young children, and of inferior animals, the distinction of sex is not observed; as, The *child* has lost *its* toy; The *cat* refused to eat *its* prey. The words "child" and "cat" are *neuter gender* in these sentences.

75. Objects without sex are often spoken of as if they had sex. They are then said to be personified, and their names are regarded, if implying strength or violence, as masculine gender; if implying gentleness or beauty, as feminine gender: "The mighty *Sun*, king of the heavens, drives *his* chariot through the sky." "The fairy *Moon*, queen of the night, dispenses *her* silver beams."

76. A **collective noun** is neuter gender when the objects are considered as a unit; as, The *committee* has made *its* report.

The gender of a collective noun, representing objects acting separately, is determined by the sex of the objects; as, The *jury* were divided in *their* opinions. The words "jury" and "their" are of the masculine gender.

77. The gender of nouns is distinguished in three ways:

(1) By different words.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
bachelor	spinster (or maid)	nephew	niece
boy	girl	ram	ewe
brother	sister	ruff	reeve
drake	duck	sir	madam
father	mother	son	daughter
hart	roe	stag	hind
husband	wife	uncle	aunt
king	queen	wizard	witch
lord	lady	monk	nun

(2) By different terminations.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
abbot	abbess	heir	heiress
actor	actress	hero	heroine
administrator	administratrix	host	hostess
baron	baroness	Jew	Jewess
count	countess	lion	lioness

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
czar	czarina	master	mistress
deacon	deaconess	negro	negress
duke	duchess	Paul	Pauline
emperor	empress	prince	princess
executor	executrix	poet	poetess
god	goddess	sultan	sultana
governor	governess	widower	widow

(3) By affixes.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
bridegroom	bride	landlord	landlady
buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit	male	female
cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	Mr. Jones	Mrs. Jones
gentleman	gentlewoman	merman	mermaid
he-goat	she-goat	peacock	peahen

78. Among good writers and speakers of the present day the tendency is to omit feminine inflections whenever it is not important to mark distinctions of sex. Such terms as *doctor*, *author*, *engraver*, *singer*, *writer*, *lecturer*, and *chairman* are applicable to women as well as to men.

EXERCISE XI.

Tell the person, number, and gender of each noun in the following sentences:

1. Night closed in but still no guest arrived.
2. Count that day lost whose low descending sun
Views from thy hand no worthy action done.
3. The unwearied sun from day to day
Doth his Creator's power display,
And publishes to every land
The work of an Almighty hand.—Addison.
4. It is the greatest courage to be able to bear the imputation of the want of courage.—Henry Clay.
5. Thou art the man.
6. Brethren, the sower's task is done.—Bryant.
7. A chieftain to the Highlands bound,
Cries, "Boatman, do not tarry."
8. King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets?
9. I can not tell what you and other men
Think of this life; but for my single self,
I had as lief not be, as live to be
In awe of such a thing as I myself.—Shakespeare.

10. Ah, Goddess! child, spinster, or widow—as of
old on Mars Hill when they raised
To the God that they knew not an altar—so
I, a young Pagan, have praised
The Goddess I know not nor worship; yet
if half that men tell me be true,
You will come in the future, and therefore
these verses are written to you.—Kipling.
11. Dave saw a covey of grouse.
12. Cleveland has a string of fish.

CASE.

79. In the following sentences, point out the relation that each italicized word bears to some other word in the sentence:

1. *Daniel Webster* was a *statesman*.
2. *Antony* loved his *friend*.
3. The *boy* followed the *shepherd's dog*.
4. The boy stood on the burning *deck*.
5. James, the *blacksmith*, has a strong *arm*.
6. *Henry*, character is more important than reputation.
7. The camel has been called the *ship* of the *desert*.
8. Cora desires to be a *milliner*.
9. The *house* being destroyed, we moved to the city.
10. Charles can walk four *miles* an *hour*.

80. In the first sentence, the word, "Daniel Webster," bears the relation of subject to the verb "was"; the word "statesman" stands in the relation of attribute complement of "was." In the second sentence, the word "friend" stands in the relation of direct object to the verb "loved" because it names the object that received the act expressed by "loved." In the third sentence, the word, "shepherd's," names the owner of the dog, and so, limits the application of the word "dog" to a particular dog.

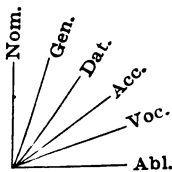
Notice the difference in meaning of the third sentence, when the sign ('s) is omitted. This sign ('s) indicates the relation of the word "shepherd" to "dog."

It will be observed that sometimes the *form* of the substantive shows its *use* in the sentence and sometimes its *relation* shows its use in the sentence.

Whatever it is that shows the use of a substantive in a sentence is called its *case*. Then we have the definition: **Case** is that property of a substantive which shows its use in the sentence.

ORIGIN OF THE TERM.

81. Case is from the Latin word *casus*, and means a falling. The cases were supposed to *fall* or *decline* from the nominative, which was written in a perpendicular, and therefore called *rectus casus*, the *upright case*, while the others were written from that at different angles, and therefore called *obliqui casus*, the *oblique cases*, as in the opposite diagram. This also explains the application of the terms, *decline* and *declension*, to the inflection of substantives.



82. The Number of Cases.—In the early stages of the English language there were five cases and each case was marked by a change in the form of the word. Gradually these changes in form have been disregarded until, at present, there are but two case forms for the noun, and three case forms for the pronoun. *Relation* has always been an important factor in determining the case of nouns in all languages. In the Latin, which is a highly inflected language, the relation of a noun often determines its case:

1. Puellae sunt parvae.
(The girls are small.)
2. Agricola rosam puellae dat.
(The farmer gives the girl a rose.)
3. Puer puellae rosam videt.
(The boy sees the girl's rose.)

“Puellae,” in the first sentence, is in the *nominative case*, because it stands in the relation of subject to the verb “sunt.” In the second sentence, “puellae” is in the *dative case*, because it stands in the relation of indirect object (108) to the verb “dat.” In the third sen-

tence, "puellae" is in the *genitive case*, because it stands in the relation of modifier to the word "rosam." The three nouns have the same form but stand in different relations and, therefore, are in different cases.

All the relations of substantives, with reference to use in the sentence, have been put into three classes to correspond to the three forms that some substantive words (pronouns) have. Because of this there are three cases: **nominative case**, **possessive case**, and **objective case**.

INFLECTION.

83. Inflection is a change in the *form* of a word to indicate a change in its *meaning* or *relation*. The inflection of substantives is called **declension**. Substantives are declined to show *number*, *gender*, and *case*.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
<i>Nominative</i>	boy		boys		
<i>Possessive</i>	boy's		boys'		
<i>Objective</i>	boy		boys		

	SING.		PLU.	
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	actor	actress	actors	actresses
<i>Pos.</i>	actor's	actress's	actors'	actresses'
<i>Obj.</i>	actor	actress	actors	actresses

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	ox	oxen	David	Cora
<i>Pos.</i>	ox's	oxen's	David's	Cora's
<i>Obj.</i>	ox	oxen	David.	Cora

84. It will be observed from the foregoing that, in English, nouns have but little variation in form to distinguish their cases. Only the possessive case can be distinguished by its form. The English language is not a highly inflected language like the Latin and some others. The study of Latin is largely a study of *forms*, while the study of English is mainly a study of *relations*. Relations are more difficult to see than forms.

THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

85. The nominative case has two divisions: **nominative dependent** and **nominative independent**, or **absolute**.

Dependent Constructions:

1. Subject of a Finite Verb; as, *James* saw a bear.
2. Attribute Complement of a Verb; as, *James* is a *hunter*.
3. In Apposition; as, *Henry*, the *lawyer*, was sick.
4. By Enallage; as, *John* being a lawyer does not excuse him.

86. Subject of a Finite Verb.—The nominative case is the *naming case* and its regular use is to represent the object about which the assertion is made. It always does this in the dependent constructions, in correct English.

87. Attribute Complement.—The attribute complement is that which completes the predicate and refers to the subject. When a substantive is an attribute complement, it and the subject refer to the same object, and have the same case. When an adjective is used as an attribute complement it expresses an attribute of the subject.

There are three varieties of this construction:

1. Attribute complement of a copulative verb; as, *John* is a *hunter*; *Washington* became *president*.
2. Attribute complement of a transitive verb in the passive voice; as, *John* was called a *hunter*; *Washington* was elected *president*.
3. Attribute complement of an infinitive whose subject is also the subject of the finite verb on which the infinitive depends; as, *Henry* desires to be a *doctor*; *Cora* wishes to be a *milliner*; *James* expects to be elected *chairman*.

88. In Apposition.—This has been called the relation of identity. When one word is in apposition with another, they both refer to the same object, and both have the same case. This construction is really a modified form of the attribute complement. In the sentence, *Milton*, who was a poet, wrote "*Comus*," by omitting the subject and verb of the clause, the attribute complement

becomes an appositive modifier: Milton, the poet, wrote "Comus."

89. By Enallage.—By a figure of speech called *enallage*, the subject of a participle is often in the nominative case or the objective case when it should be in the possessive case; but this construction should be avoided.

Definition.—"Enallage is a substitution, as of one part of speech for another, of one person, number, gender, case, tense, mode, or voice, of the same word, for another."

Enallage is used sometimes to a good effect in poetry:

"They fall successive and successive rise."

The adjective "*successive*" is used by enallage for the adverb *successively*.

Show two meanings of the following sentence:

"There is no harm in women running for office."

To prevent ambiguity avoid the use of enallage.

90. Independent, or Absolute Constructions:

1. By Direct Address; as, *John*, the door is open.
2. By Exclamation; as, *The drunkard!* is he here?
3. By Pleonasm; as, *Gad*, a troop shall overcome him.
4. By Inscription:
 - a. Superscription; as, *Grand Hotel* (sign).
 - b. Subscription; as, *John Smith* (signature).
5. With a Participle; as, *The house being destroyed*, we left.

91. REMARK.—The terms, *independent* and *absolute*, are used here with the same meaning. After a word has become absolute (set free), it is independent with regard to its grammatical construction.

92. By Direct Address.—In addressing a person, the name is often used simply to secure the attention, and the thought is expressed in the sentence which follows the name. Sometimes the name follows the sentence, but then, also, the name is used to secure attention generally. Since the name may be omitted, and often is, without affecting the thought, it is used independently. The comma is used to cut off the independent part.

93. By Exclamation.—A name used to express strong feeling or sudden emotion usually has no grammatical connection with the sentence following it. Nouns used in this way are said to be independent by exclamation.

Ex.—The *boy*! was he drowned?

The exclamation point generally sets off the independent part from the main sentence, in this construction.

94. By Pleonasm.—The use of more words than are necessary to the full construction of a sentence, is called *pleonasm*. The pleonastic word is crowded out of the sentence and is left independent in its construction. Pleonasm should be avoided in conversation, and usually in prose; but in poetry, sometimes its effect is good; as,

The *skies* they were ashen and sober;
The *leaves* they were crisped and sere—
The *leaves* they were withering and sere;
It was night in the lonesome October
Of my most immemorial year.—Poe.

95. By Inscription.—This independent use of a noun is really not a construction since no sentence follows. There are two varieties of inscription:

1. **Superscription;** as, the titles of books, signs for business houses, and the address on an envelope.

2. **Subscription;** as, the signature at the close of a letter, note, check, or poem.

96. With a Participle.—In a complex sentence, the dependent clause may be abridged by dropping the connective and changing the finite verb to a participle. The subject of the dependent clause then loses its grammatical connection with the sentence, and becomes independent in its construction.

If, in the sentence, *Because the horse was lame, we walked*, we drop the connective "because," the dependent clause becomes independent. If we replace the finite verb "was" by its participle *being*, the expression, *being lame*, becomes an appositive modifier of "*horse*,"

and "horse" is said to be used independently with the participle *being*. The sentence in its abridged form reads: *The horse being lame, we walked.* It is clear that the logical relation is retained even after the grammatical connection has been destroyed. The phrase, "*The horse being lame,*" expresses the reason for our walking, almost as definitely as does the clause, "*Because the horse was lame.*"

EXERCISE XII.

In the following sentences, give the person, number, gender, and case, of all the nouns and tell how each noun is used:

1. Neither a borrower nor a lender be.
2. My brother, the lawyer, is visiting me.
3. Our boat was called Rhea.
4. Is your name Shylock?
5. Henry, the exercise must be prepared.
6. The house being destroyed could not be rebuilt.
7. Goodness! what a fuss is being made.
8. The baby was named Mattie.
9. Thy rod and thy staff—they comfort me.
10. The fire being extinguished, the crowd dispersed.
11. The boy, oh where is he?
12. But our love it was stronger by far than the love
Of those who were older than we.—Poe.
13. Smith and Wilcox (firm name).
14. Webster's Dictionary.
15. Johnson, the policeman, being present, the thief ran.
16. Tom being a large man is a good thing.
17. Avenue Hotel (sign).
18. For the dear God who loveth us,
He made and loveth all.—Coleridge.
19. Czolgosz being an assassin, the people condemned him.
20. You, Mattie, may recite.

THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

97. In the following sentences, tell the relation each italicized word bears to some other word, and also, note the form:

1. The boy's book is torn.
2. William's task was finished before *his* cousin came.
3. We stopped at *Silverman's*, the tailor.
4. He saw the *King of England's* crown.

98. The **possessive case** is found in two constructions:

1. The ordinary use, to limit a noun referring to a different object; as, This is *John's* book.

2. The occasional use, to limit a noun referring to the same object; as, They stopped at Johnson's, the *lawyer*. In this sentence, the word "lawyer" is in the possessive case because it is an appositive modifier of the noun "Johnson's." "Johnson's" and "lawyer" refer to the same person and have the same case.

99. The possessive case is used to denote:

1. Ownership; as, This is *John's* book.
2. Authorship; as, We study *Blair's* Rhetoric.
3. Origin; as, The *sun's* rays are bright.
4. Kind; as, Mr. Hann sells *men's* hats.

100. How to Form the Possessive Case.

1. **Singular nouns** form the possessive case by adding the *'s* to the nominative case; as, *boy, boy's; Henry, Henry's*.

NOTE.—If the added *s* causes too many hissing sounds to come together, it may be omitted in pronunciation, but not generally in writing. In the following expressions the *s* is usually omitted: "For conscience' sake," "For Jesus' sake," "Demosthenes' orations," "Xerxes' army." In some of these examples, it is better to change the form of the expression; as, the army of Xerxes, the orations of Demosthenes, etc.

2. **Plural nouns** ending in *s* form the possessive case by adding to the nominative case the apostrophe alone; as, *boys, boys'; ladies, ladies'; birds' nests; pupils' books*.

NOTE.—When the noun does not end in *s*, the *'s* should be added; as, *men's shoes, children's toys*. Some make an exception to this note by saying that nouns having the same form in the singular and the plural, should add the *'s* in the singular and the *s'* in the plural; as, *sheep's (sing.), sheeps' (plu.)*.

101. In Old English and in Middle English a large number of nouns had in the genitive (possessive) case singular the ending *es*. The following examples are from Chaucer:

1. "And specially, from every *shires* ende
Of Engelond, to Caunterbury they wende."
2. "Ful worthy was he in his *lordes* werre (war)
And therto hadde he riden, no man ferre."

By the close of the seventeenth century the present way of forming the possessive case had become general. The (') marks the omission of the vowel before the *s*; as, *lord's* for *lordes*.

102. When two or more nouns implying common possession are used, the sign of possession is added only to the one immediately preceding the word limited; as, Smith and Collin's shoe store; Johnson, Bass, and Company's hardware store.

103. When two or more nouns implying separate possession are used, the sign is added to each; as, Webster's and Worcester's dictionaries.

104. When a noun in the possessive case is limited by a noun in apposition, by a descriptive phrase, or by the adjective *else*, the sign is added to the word immediately preceding the word limited; as,

1. He saw Emperor William's crown.
2. They visited the King of England's palace.
3. Do not take anybody else's book.

105. In compound words the sign of possession is added to the last part; as, the son-in-law's hat; the sons-in-law's hats.

Possession is sometimes expressed by the objective case with the preposition *of*; as, The wife *of my brother*, for *my brather's* wife. This form is best in speaking of inanimate objects; as, The top *of the house*; the bottom *of the tub*; the back *of the chair*. Different forms of expression should be used to avoid monotony.

EXERCISE XIII.

106. In the following sentences, tell what each noun in the possessive case denotes and change the form of the expression so as to avoid the use of the possessive case.

1. This is the Prince of Wales's palace.
2. We called at Johnson's, the lawyer.
3. They came without a moment's delay.
4. He enjoys the winter's snow.
5. In reason's ear they all rejoice.—Addison.
6. We use Ferrell and Sisk's Arithmetics.

7. In my father's house are many mansions.
8. The man's head was badly hurt.
9. The ladies' gallery is closed.
10. He has children's shoes to sell.
11. John bought a new Webster's dictionary.
12. They saw him at Hann, the merchant's store.
13. She has had five years' experience.
14. Let all the ends thou aim'st at be thy Country's,
Thy God's, and Truth's.—Shakespeare.
15. Troy was taken after a ten years' siege.
16. I will not destroy the city for ten's sake.
17. It is nobody else's business what I do.
18. Peter's wife's mother lay sick of a fever.
19. Smith and Wilcox's store is beautifully decorated.
20. Edward was the Queen of England's son.
21. Brothers and sisters have I none,
But this man's father is my father's son.
22. Moses was the daughter of Pharaoh's son.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

107. The objective case is found in the following relations:

1. Object of a Verb; as, James struck the *ball*.
2. After a Preposition; as, The ball in my *hand* is rubber.
3. Subject of an Infinitive; as, She desired the *boy* to leave.
4. Attribute Complement of an Infinitive; as, They wanted him to be a *preacher*.
5. In Apposition with an Objective; as, We met Thomas, the *blacksmith*.
6. By Enallage for the Possessive; as, There is no good in *women* running for office.
7. Adverbial Objective; as, He walked a *mile*.

108. Object of a Verb.—Under this heading there are four varieties:

1. The direct object of an active transitive verb; as, James struck the *ball*. The word *ball* names the object that received the act expressed by the verb *struck*. In this event the *striking* was limited to the one object which is represented by the noun *ball*. A substantive used to represent an object which limits or receives directly the act expressed by the verb, is called a *direct object*, and is in the objective case.

2. Indirect object; as, She gave *Henry* an apple. In this sentence, "*apple*" names the object which received the act directly, while "*Henry*" names the object that received the *result* of the act. The result of the *giving* was a *gift*. A substantive used to represent an object that receives the *result* of an act

expressed by a verb, is called an *indirect object* and is in the objective case. The indirect object stands between the verb and the direct object. When the direct object immediately follows the verb, the relation of the indirect object must be expressed by a preposition; as, She gave an apple *to* Henry. For this reason some prefer to say that the case of the indirect object is always governed by a preposition either expressed or understood. The indirect object is also called the *dative object*.

3. The factitive object; as, They made Edward *king*. The action expressed by "made" is limited to the object Edward. But the object has been brought into a new relation and must have a new name to represent it in this new relation. The new name is *king*. A noun which represents the direct object in a new relation that has been brought about through the action of the verb, is called a *factitive object*. Other examples are:

- (1) They elected him *president*.
- (2) The mob chose him *leader*.
- (3) The parents named the baby *Lucy*.
- (4) James called Sam a *crank*.

(Factitive is from *facere*, to make.)

4. The cognate object; as,

- (1) He has lived an honorable *life*.
- (2) The boys ran a *race*.
- (3) He died the *death* of the righteous.
- (4) Men shall dream *dreams*.

The verbs "lived," "ran," "died," and "shall dream," are usually *intransitive*. But such verbs become transitive when they require objects to complete the meaning. The nouns "life," "race," "death," and "dreams," are called cognate objects, in the foregoing sentences, because they represent objects coexistent with the action expressed by the verbs. (Cognate is from *cognasce*, to be born together.) It will be observed that when the *living* stops, the *life* stops; that the *race* begins and ends with the *running*, etc.

109. After a Preposition.—Sometimes the relation of a substantive to some other word is expressed by a preposition; as, The book *on* the table is a reader. The relation of "table" to "book" is expressed by the preposition "on." A substantive, which is brought into a modifying relation to another word by means of a preposition, is governed in the objective case by the preposition.

110. Subject of an Infinitive.—A substantive used as the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case,

unless it is also the subject of the finite verb on which the infinitive depends; as, She desired *him* and his *friend* to leave. The words, "him" and "friend" have the same construction, and therefore, the same case. But the form of the pronoun shows that they are in the objective case.

The way to determine whether "him" and "friend" are objects of "desired" or subjects of "to leave," is to change the infinitive to the finite form: She desired that he and his friend leave. "He" and "friend" are subjects of "leave," so "him" and "friend" are subjects of the infinitive "to leave."

Why is the subject of an infinitive in the objective case? Examine the following sentences:

1. "She believes him to be a liar."
2. "She believes he is a liar."

Now "him" bears the same relation to the infinitive "to be" that "he" does to the finite verb "is"; but "he" is the subject of "is," so also, is "him" the subject of "to be." "He" is in the nominative case, not because it follows the transitive verb "believes," but because it is the subject of the finite verb "is"; so "him" is in the objective case, not because it follows the transitive verb "believes," but because it is the subject of the infinitive "to be."

111. Attribute Complement of an Infinitive.—We have just seen (110) that the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case (unless it is also the subject of the finite verb on which the infinitive depends). We have also learned (87) that the attribute complement has the same case as the subject. Notice the sentences:

1. "They wanted him to be a *lawyer*."
2. "He wanted to be a *lawyer*."

"Lawyer" in (1) is in the objective case to agree with "him," the subject of "to be"; "lawyer" in (2) is in the nominative case to agree with "he," the subject of "wanted" and "to be."

112. In Apposition with an Objective; as, We met Thomas, the *blacksmith*. The nature of the appositive

modifier has already been explained (88); so here nothing needs to be said further than to make the general statement: An appositive noun (or pronoun) must always agree in case with the one explained.

113. By Enallage; as, I never heard of that *man* running for office. This construction is to be avoided. For definition, see (89).

- Ex.**—1. *Henry* being a lawyer does not excuse him.
2. I never thought of *John* coming so soon.

“Henry” is nominative for the possessive, Henry’s, and “John” is objective for the possessive, John’s.

114. Adverbial Objective.—When a noun, expressing measure of some kind, is used without a preposition to limit a verb, adjective, or adverb, it is called an “adverbial objective.”

- Ex.**—1. He walked a *mile*.
2. The ditch is four *feet* deep.
3. You should have come an *hour* sooner.

PARSING.

115. Parsing consists of three steps:

1. The complete classification of the word.
2. The statement of its properties.
3. The pointing out of its construction.

REMARK.—The full form of parsing should be used to begin with, but the pupils should be taught to use the abbreviations correctly. Their written parsing may be abbreviated. Parsing can be made a most valuable and interesting exercise. It should not become a *grind*. When the pupils have acquired the ability to tell quickly and accurately the constructions of words in sentences, parsing should be discontinued. Much of the parsing should be written on paper, correctly punctuated and capitalized.

MODELS FOR PARSING THE NOUN.

(1) The *teacher* desired the *boys* to study.

Full form:

Teacher is a concrete noun, class noun, third person, singular number, common gender, nominative case, the subject of the verb “desired.”

Boys is a concrete noun, class noun, third person, plural

number, masculine gender, objective case, subject of the infinitive "to study."

(2) The *kindness* of the *man* was known.

Abbreviated form:

Kindness, abs. n. of quality, 3d, sing., neut., nom., subj. of "was known."

Man, con. n., class, 3d, sing., masc., obj., obj. after "of."

EXERCISE XIV.

Parse all the nouns in the following sentences:

1. Plato was a philosopher.
2. Plato was called a philosopher.
3. Plato, the philosopher, lived eighty-two years.
4. He lived a noble life.
5. Socrates died the death of a philosopher.
6. The class elected Mary chairman.
7. Mary was elected chairman by the class.
8. Honor and shame from no condition rise;
Act well your part; there all the honor lies.—Pope.
9. Aristophanes, the Alexandrian grammarian, was the first to make use of marks to help in making clear the meaning of a sentence.
10. About four hundred years ago, a Venetian printer, Manutius, invented the punctuation marks now in use.
11. O Popular Applause! what heart of man
Is proof against thy sweet, seducing charms?
12. Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting.
13. The chastity of honor, which felt a stain like a wound, which inspired courage while it mitigated ferocity, which ennobled whatever it touched, and under which, vice itself lost half its evil by losing its grossness, is gone.—Burke.
14. *Its*, which does not occur in literature before the seventeenth century, is the youngest pronoun in our language.
15. Lindley Murray, who published a grammar of the English language in 1795, is called "The Father of English Grammar."
16. The adjective, *else*, always follows the noun which it limits.
17. Woe worth the chase! woe worth the day!
That cost thy life, my gallant gray.—Scott.
18. Said the little brown leaf,
As it hung in the air,
To the little brown leaf below;
"What a summer we've had
To rejoice and be glad,
But to-day there's a feeling of snow."—Margaret E. Sangster.
19. Men called the first steam boat "Fulton's Folly."

20. Every why has its wherefore.
21. The president granted the prisoner a full pardon.
22. The committee has made its report.
23. Not only around our infancy
Doth heaven with all its splendors lie;
Daily, with souls that cringe and plot,
We Sinais climb and know it not.—Lowell.
24. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!
25. The father desired his son to be a doctor.
26. Mattie expects to be a teacher.
27. The cobbler's last will last till he has dropped his last
coin into the till.
28. Now Ben he loved a pretty maid,
Her name was Nellie Gray.
29. We stopped at McRay's, the jeweler.
30. The jury were unable to agree.
31. In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was
with God, and the Word was God.
32. For Christ's sweet sake, I beg an alms.—Lowell.
33. I held it truth, with him who sings
To one clear harp in divers tones
That men may rise on stepping-stones
Of their dead selves to higher things.—Tennyson.

SUMMARY.

116. We may now make the outline of the noun complete. The figures in parentheses refer to sections.

THE NOUN (27).

- I. Definition (28).
- II. Classes on basis of meaning
 1. Proper (29).
 2. Common (30).
 - 1¹. Class (32, 2).
 - 2¹. Collective (32, 3).
 - 3¹. Mass (32, 4).
 - 4¹. Abstract (33).
- III. Classes on basis of the way in which the mind views the objects themselves.
 1. Concrete.
 - 1¹. Proper (32, 1).
 - 2¹. Class (32, 2).
 - 3¹. Collective (32, 3).
 - 4¹. Mass (32, 4).
 2. Abstract (33).
 - 1¹. Of Quality.
 - 2¹. Of Condition.
 - 3¹. Of Action.

IV. Properties.

1. Person (37).
 - 1¹. First (38).
 - 2¹. Second (39).
 - 3¹. Third (40).
2. Number (45).
 - 1¹. Singular (46).
 - 2¹. Plural (46).
3. Gender (68).
 - 1¹. Masculine (69).
 - 2¹. Feminine (70).
 - 3¹. Common (71).
 - 4¹. Neuter (72).
4. Case (80).
 - 1¹. Nominative (86).
 - 1². Dependent Constructions.
 - 1³. Subject of a Finite Verb (86).
 - 2³. Attribute Complement (87).
 - 3³. In Apposition with a Nominative (88).
 - 4³. By Enallage for the Possessive (89).
 - 2². Independent Constructions (90).
 - 1³. By Direct Address (92).
 - 2³. By Exclamation (93).
 - 3³. By Pleonasm (94).
 - 4³. By Inscription (95).
 - 1⁴. Superscription (95, 1).
 - 2⁴. Subscription (95, 2).
 - 5³. With a Participle (96).
 - 2¹. Possessive (97).
 - 1². Constructions.
 - 1³. Limiting a noun referring to a different object.
 - 2³. Limiting a noun referring to the same object.
 - 2². Denotes: (99).
 - 1³. Ownership.
 - 2³. Authorship.
 - 3³. Origin.
 - 4³. Kind.
 - 3¹. Objective (107).
 - 1². Object of a Verb (108).
 - 1³. The Direct Object.
 - 2³. The Indirect Object.
 - 3³. The Factitive Object.
 - 4³. The Cognate object.
 - 2². After a Preposition (109).

- 3^d. Subject of an Infinitive (110).
- 4^d. Attribute Complement of Infinitive (111).
- 5^d. In Apposition with an Objective (112).
- 6^d. By Enallage for the Possessive (113).
- 7^d. Adverbial Objective (114).

REVIEW OF THE NOUN.

- 1. State the difference between a noun and a pronoun.
- 2. Define concrete noun; abstract noun.
- 3. When do proper nouns become class nouns?
- 4. When do collective nouns become class nouns?
- 5. When do abstract nouns become concrete nouns?
- 6. When does a collective noun require a singular verb?
A plural verb?
- 7. Upon what is person based?
- 8. Write a sentence containing the noun, *Henry*, in the first person; in the second person; in the third person.
- 9. To what does sex belong?
- 10. To what does gender belong?
- 11. Give three ways of distinguishing the masculine gender from the feminine gender.
- 12. What is said about the gender of collective nouns?
- 13. Tell how to determine the gender of the names of sexless objects personified.
- 14. Give the origin of the term *case*. How many cases in English? Why?
- 15. Write sentences illustrating all the nominative relations; all the possessive relations; all the objective relations.
- 16. Give the origin of the appositive construction.
- 17. Tell how to write the possessive case of any noun (simple or compound).
- 18. The parsing of a word consists of what?

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

117. We have already learned (17) that a pronoun is a substantive word which represents an object without naming it. The need of such a word is apparent in the following sentence:

"James put James's book on James's desk."

The repetition of the name may be avoided by the use of the pronoun:

James put his book on his desk.

Notice that "*James*" names the object while "*his*" represents the object without naming it.

Nouns and pronouns have the same properties—*person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*. The noun, or other substantive, for which the pronoun is used, is called the *antecedent* because it usually precedes the pronoun. The antecedent may or may not be found in the same sentence in which the pronoun is used. Since the pronoun and its antecedent represent the same object, they must agree in *person*, *number*, and *gender*. The *case* of the pronoun is shown either by its form or by its use in the sentence without any reference to its antecedent.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

118. In the following sentences, note the different uses of the pronouns:

1. *He* and *I* study together.
2. *You* can help *me* in *my* work.
3. *We* can be of service to *them*.
4. The pupil *who* studies will learn.
5. The book *which* was lost is found.
6. This is the house *that* Jack built.
7. *Who* built this house? Jack.
8. *What* did Jack build? A house.

119. The pronouns in the first three sentences show by their form the relation their objects bear to the author of the sentence; that is, their form indicates whether they are of the *first*, *second*, or *third person*. (See 36). On account of this peculiarity these pronouns are called **personal pronouns**.

120. In sentences four, five, and six, each pronoun has a connective use in addition to its substantive use. Such pronouns are called **conjunctive**, or **relative pronouns**.

121. In sentences seven and eight, each pronoun has a questioning use in addition to its substantive use. These pronouns are called **interrogative pronouns**.

There are three distinct classes of pronouns: **personal**, **conjunctive** or **relative**, and **interrogative**.

NOTE.—Some authors call *this*, *these*, *that*, and *those*, when used substantively, *demonstrative pronouns*; and *each*, *either*, *few*, *some*, etc., *indefinite pronouns*. There is no serious objection to calling such words, when used substantively, *adjective pronouns*, but the making of many classes is confusing to the learner.

While *this*, *that*, *each*, *few*, *many*, etc., are sometimes used substantively, they are never *pure* substantives, and since they are often used purely attributively, there is more reason for classing them as adjectives than as pronouns. We might regard almost any other adjective a pronoun when it, in addition to its attributive use, takes on a substantive use. In this book such words are classed as adjectives.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

122. A **personal pronoun** is a pronoun which shows by its form the relation of its object to the author of the sentence. There are six personal pronouns:

1. The pronoun of the first person, **I**.
2. The grave form of the second person, **thou**.
3. The common form of the second person, **you**.
4. The masculine form of the third person, **he**.
5. The feminine form of the third person, **she**.
6. The neuter form of the third person, **it**.

123. Declension of Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON—COMMON GENDER.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I	<i>Nom.</i>	we
<i>Poss.</i>	my, or mine	<i>Poss.</i>	our, or ours
<i>Obj.</i>	me	<i>Obj.</i>	us

SECOND PERSON—COMMON GENDER.

	(Grave)			(Common)	
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>		<i>Sing. or Plu.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i>	thou	ye	<i>Nom.</i>	you	
<i>Poss.</i>	{ thy, or	{ your, or	<i>Poss.</i>	{ your, or	
	{ thine	{ yours		{ yours	
<i>Obj.</i>	thee	you	<i>Obj.</i>	you	

THIRD PERSON—MASCULINE.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	he	<i>Nom.</i>	they
<i>Poss.</i>	his	<i>Poss.</i>	their, or theirs
<i>Obj.</i>	him	<i>Obj.</i>	them

THIRD PERSON—FEMININE.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	she	<i>Nom.</i>	they
<i>Poss.</i>	her, or hers	<i>Poss.</i>	their, or theirs
<i>Obj.</i>	her	<i>Obj.</i>	them

THIRD PERSON—NEUTER.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	it	<i>Nom.</i>	they
<i>Poss.</i>	its	<i>Poss.</i>	their, or theirs
<i>Obj.</i>	it	<i>Obj.</i>	them

REMARKS ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

124. *We*, *our*, and *us* represent the speaker and any others whom he wishes to include with himself. These forms are sometimes used by the speaker or writer referring to himself as the representative of a *class*, *doctrine*, *community*, or *nation*. This use is spoken of as the "editorial use."

Ex.—"We voice the sentiments of the people and *our* friends will not forsake *us*."

125. *Thou* is the original singular pronoun of the second person. *Thou*, *thy* or *thine*, and *thee* are called the grave forms because they are now used principally by the Society of Friends, and by others in religious exercises. These forms are still employed in poetry:

I see *thee* glittering from afar,—
And then *thou* art a pretty star;
Not quite so fair as many are
In heaven above *thee*!
Yet like a star, with glittering crest,
Self-poised in air *thou* seem'st to rest;—
May peace come never to his nest,
Who shall reprove *thee*!—Wordsworth.

126. In ordinary speech, *you* is used in both the singular and the plural, but the verb should always be plural; as, *You were*; never, *you was*. *You* is sometimes used without reference to a particular person addressed:

1. To empty here, *you* must condense there.—Emerson.
2. The peasants take off their hats as *you* pass; *you* sneeze, and they cry, "God bless you!" The thrifty housewife shows *you* into her best chamber. *You* have eaten cakes baked some months before.—Longfellow.

127. *They* is often used to refer to persons indefinitely; as,

They are slaves who dare not be
In the right with two or three.—Lowell.

He and *she* are sometimes used indefinitely, too; as,

1. "*He* that drinks will become a drunkard."
2. "*She* who knows merely how to dress, dance, and flirt, will never make a good wife."

Our language has no common gender pronoun of the third person in the singular number, so the masculine forms sometimes represent females as well as males; as, "Each pupil must do *his* own work if *he* desires credit to be given *him*."

128. Special uses of *it*:

1. To refer to some single object; as, John dropped his *slate* and broke *it*.

2. To refer to infants; as, The *child* has lost *its* toy.

3. To stand as grammatical subject of the verb "be," followed by an attribute complement of any person, number, and gender:

(1) It is I.

(2) It is we.

(3) It is you.

(4) It is he.

(5) It is they

(6) It is Henry.

In such sentences, the pronoun *it* refers to the object as a *thing*, while the attribute complement refers to the same object, usually with more definite information, as a *person*.

4. As an impersonal subject; as, 1. And when I woke, *it* rained.—Coleridge. 2. *It* was late and after midnight.—De Quincey. 3. "*It* snows." 4. "*It* is two o'clock."

5. As an expletive; as,

(1) Come, and trip *it* as ye go
On the light fantastic toe.—Milton.

(2) *It* is wrong to steal.

(3) *It* is a pity that he has so much learning, or that he has not a great deal more.—Addison.

In the expletive use, *it* simply fills out the *form* of the sentence. When the subject in (2) is placed before the verb, *it* disappears entirely; as, *To steal* is wrong. The same is true of the third sentence.

129. The forms *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs* are used instead of *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, and *their*, when the limited noun is omitted:

1. I have *my* book and you have *yours* (your book).

2. We know *our* lesson, but they do not know *theirs* (their lesson).

NOTE.—In sentence (1) "*yours*" is a pronoun in the *possessive case*, limiting the noun *book* understood. Some authors would parse "*yours*" as a *possessive pronoun* in the *objective case*, object of "have," but these same authors, in declining the pronouns say, "Nominative case, *you*, possessive case, *your*, or *yours*, objective case, *you*."

130. *Mine* and *thine* are sometimes used instead of *my* and *thy*, before words beginning with a vowel sound; as,

1. Bow down *thine* ear.
2. If *thine* eye offend thee, pluck it out.—Bible.
3. Shall I not take *mine* ease in *mine* inn?—Shakespeare.
4. I will lift up *mine* eyes unto the hills.—Bible.

This usage is still preserved in poetry.

131. A peculiar use of the possessive case has resulted from a "mixture of constructions." Possession may be expressed either by the use of the possessive case or by the use of the preposition "of" followed by the objective case. These two constructions have been blended into one in the following sentences:

1. No words of *ours* can describe the fury of the conflict.—J. F. Cooper.
2. This ancient silver bowl of *mine*,
It tells of good old times.—Holmes.
3. These lectures of *Lowell's* had a great influence upon me, and I used to like whatever they bade me like.—Howells.
4. This introduction of *Atterbury's* has all these advantages.—Blair.
5. Always afterwards on occasions of ceremony, he wore that quaint old French sword of *the Commodore's*.—E. E. Hale.

In the foregoing sentences, the italicized expressions are called "double possessives."

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

132. The compound personal pronouns are formed by adding *self* and *selves* to the possessive forms of *I*, *thou*, and *you*, and to the objective forms of *he*, *she*, and *it*.

They are:

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person</i>	{ myself ourselves	{ ourselves
<i>Second Person</i>	{ thyself yourself	{ yourselves

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Third Person</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{himself} \\ \text{herself} \\ \text{itself} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{themselves} \end{array} \right.$

These forms are used only in the nominative and the objective cases; never in the possessive case.

133. These forms have two principal uses:

1. *Reflexive*.—When the doer of an act is also the receiver of it, the act is said to reflect or be bent back upon the subject, and the object is called a reflexive object. The reflexive object and the subject always have the same meaning.

Ex.—(1) I know *myself* now.—Shakespeare.

(2) He that wrongs his friend, wrongs *himself* more.—Tennyson.

(3) We fill *ourselves* with ancient learning.—Emerson.

2. *Emphatic*.—In this use the compound personal pronoun either follows a preposition or has an appositive construction.

Ex.—(1) He bought the hat for *himself*.

(2) The house was divided against *itself*.

(3) John will do the work *himself*.

(4) You *yourself* told me.

134. OCCASIONAL USES.—Sometimes the compound form is used for the simple form; as,

(1) Lord Altamont designed to take his son and *myself*.—De Quincey.

(2) Victories that neither *myself* nor my cause always deserved.—Franklin.

(3) But love is blind, and lovers can not see

The pretty follies that *themselves* commit.—Shakespeare.

(4) *Myself* am hell.—Milton.

Sometimes the simple form is used instead of the compound; as,

(1) "I lay *me* down to sleep."

(2) "Get *thee* behind me."

NOTE.—*Self* is sometimes used as a noun; as, "As for my single *self*"; "Men may rise upon stepping stones of their dead *selves*."

135. When we wish to emphasize a noun or pronoun in the *possessive case*, we use the adjective *own*; as, John has *his own* book.

PARSING OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

136. Since the personal pronoun indicates by its form, without reference to its antecedent, its *person*, *number*, and usually *gender*, the antecedent need not be mentioned in parsing. However, the pupil should be able to point out the antecedent when it is called for.

MODELS.

The evil that men do lives after them.—Shakespeare.

Ful form: *Them* is a pronoun, personal; its antecedent is "men" with which it agrees in third person, plural number, masculine gender; it is in the objective case, following the preposition "after."

Abbreviated form: *Them*, pron., pers., 3d, plu., masc.; obj. case with "after."

EXERCISE XV.

In the following sentences, fill each blank with one of these pronouns: *I, me, he, him, she, her.*

1. May Henry and _____ remain?
2. Let Henry and _____ study together.
3. Was it _____ that I met? No, it was _____.
4. Let not _____ boast that puts his armor on, but _____ that takes it off.
5. The teacher wants _____ and _____ to remain.
6. _____ that cometh to me, I will in no wise cast off.
7. They thought _____ to be _____.
8. If I were _____, I would not act so.
9. Ask for James and _____.
10. The matter rests between you and _____.

Fill blanks with *we, us, they, them.*

11. Do not tell on _____ boys.
12. Whom did she call? _____ girls.
13. _____ Texans love adventure.
14. It was _____ whom you saw.
15. Could it have been _____ who were so boisterous.
16. Admit none but _____ that have tickets.
17. The man thought _____ were lawyers.
18. The man thought _____ to be lawyers.

EXERCISE XVI.

In the following sentences, parse the italicized words:

1. *He* wanted *them* to select *me* chairman.
2. *She* made *him* leave the room.
3. *He* is considered a good *lawyer*.
4. *My* book is better than *yours*.
5. *It* is a sin to steal.
6. *I* was supposed to be *you*.
7. *This* is a play of *Shakespeare's*.
8. *Them* that honor *me*, *I* will honor.
9. And *I myself* sometimes despise *myself*.—Tennyson.
10. *We* are *their* friends.
11. *Him* followed *his* next *mate*.—Milton.
12. *It* is now *time* to close the recitation.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

137. A **relative pronoun** is a pronoun which connects a clause to its antecedent.

A relative pronoun can not be used in a simple sentence because it always introduces a clause which it joins to its antecedent. In the sentence, "Water, *which* is composed of oxygen and hydrogen, is essential to life," "*which*" connects the clause, "*which* is composed of oxygen and hydrogen," to the antecedent "*water*," and is equivalent to *and it*. Because of this connective use, relative pronouns are sometimes called **conjunctive pronouns**.

138. Classes of Relative Pronouns.—**Who, which, and that** are the **simple relative pronouns**. Sometimes **as** and **but** are used as simple relatives.

- Ex.**—1. The pupil *who* studies will learn.
 2. Coasting is sport *which* most children like.
 3. This is the house *that* Jack built.
 4. Read such books *as* will improve the mind.
 5. There is not a wife in the west country
But has heard of the well of St. Keyne.—Southey.

(But—who not.)

Whoso, whosoever, whoever, whichsoever, whichever, whatsoever, and whatever are called **compound**

relative pronouns. The compound relatives are formed by annexing *ever*, or *soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what*.

What is called a "double relative" because it has *two* substantive uses in addition to its connective use; as,

He will do { what
the thing which } is right.

139. Relative pronouns have very little inflection, being inflected for case only:

Sing. or Plu.
Nom. who
Poss. whose
Obj. whom

Sing. or Plu.
which
whose
which

REMARKS ON RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

140. *Who* is used to represent *persons*, or *other objects personified*; as:

1. He prayeth best *who* loveth best.—Coleridge.
2. My horse, *who* under his former rider had hunted the buffalo, seemed as much excited as myself.—Irving.

141. *Which* may represent either *animals* or *things*, but not persons; as,

1. "The lion, *which* is a very strong animal, is found in Africa."

2. "The house, *which* is built of stone, is for sale."

NOTE.—*Which* was formerly used to represent persons; as, "Our Father *which* art in heaven."

142. *That* may represent *persons*, *animals*, or *things*; as,

1. "The boy *that* is sensible is polite."
2. "The horse *that* was lame has been sold."
3. "He saw the tree *that* was struck by lightning."

143. *What* is always neuter, and is never used in the possessive case. It often combines the functions of both antecedent and relative pronoun. *What* is usually equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*; as,

I mean { what
that which } I say.

144. The **compound relatives** are often used with no antecedent expressed. The meaning is then very general; as,

1. Whosoever (any person who) exalteth himself shall be abased.
2. Take whatever (anything that) you want.

145. The relative pronoun is frequently omitted in spoken and in literary English when it is the object of a transitive verb, or the so-called object of a preposition; as,

1. These are the sounds () we feed upon.—Fletcher.
2. I visited many other apartments, but shall not trouble my reader with all the curiosities () I observed.—Swift.
3. "Is this the love () you bear me?"

146. "*Whose*" for "*of which*."—Some authors say that *whose* should not be used as the possessive case of *which*, but *of which* should always be used instead. Good writers, however, very frequently even in prose, use *whose* to refer to objects without life; as,

1. Beneath these sluggish waves lay the once proud cities of the plain, *whose* grave was dug by the thunder of the heavens.—Scott.
2. Through the heavy door *whose* bronze network closes the place of his rest, let us enter the church itself.—Ruskin.
3. Men may be ready to fight to the death, and to persecute without pity, for a religion *whose* creed they do not understand, and *whose* precepts they habitually disobey.—Macaulay.

NOTE.—The choice between *of which* and *whose* is a question of style rather than of grammar. A cultivated ear is the best guide. *Whose* is very common when the clause is restrictive.

147. Relative Clauses.—A clause introduced by a relative pronoun is called a **relative clause**.

In the following sentences, compare the relative clauses.

1. A boy *that is honest* will not practice deception.
2. Coal, *which is impure carbon*, is used for fuel.

In the first sentence, the relative clause, "that is honest," restricts, or limits the application of the noun "boy" to a certain kind of boys. The clause has the logical value of the adjective, *honest*, and can not be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence.

In the second sentence, the relative clause, "which is impure carbon," does not limit the application of "coal" to any special kind of coal, but explains a fact about coal. The clause has the logical value of an appositive modifier and may be removed without changing the leading thought in the sentence.

DEFINITION.—A relative clause which restricts or limits the application of the antecedent is called a **restrictive relative clause**. The restrictive clause should not be set off by commas.

DEFINITION.—A relative clause which explains some fact about the antecedent, but does not limit it in its application, is called a **non-restrictive relative clause**.

The non-restrictive clause should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

148. Position of the Relative.—The relative, being the connective word, generally stands first in the clause.

When, however, it is used after a preposition, the whole prepositional phrase is removed to the beginning of the clause, although in office the phrase may be adverbial; as, This is the house *in which we live*.

The relative may be placed first while the governing preposition remains at the end of the sentence; as,

This is the house *which we live in*. The relative *that* always precedes the governing preposition; as, This is the book *that I was looking for*. We do not say, This is the book *for that I was looking*. In restrictive clauses, the relative is sometimes omitted. If the relative, governed by a preposition, is omitted the position of the preposition is at the end of the sentence; as,

1. This is the house () we live in.
2. This is the book () I was looking for.

A sentence should not close with a preposition, unless

any other arrangement of the words would appear awkward or formal.

149. Agreement with the Antecedent.—The relative, like all other pronouns, agrees with its antecedent in *person*, *number*, and *gender*. The *personal pronoun* is the only pronoun that distinguishes these properties by its form. The relative (*L. relatus*, used as p. p. of *referre*—to refer or to bring back) refers to its antecedent for these three properties. Its case is determined by its construction in the clause. Note that in the following examples, the form of the relative *who* remains the same regardless of the person, number, and gender of the antecedent.

- Ex.—1. I who am your friend will not deceive you.
 2. Thou who art my friend shouldst not forsake me.
 3. He who is my friend will help me.
 4. They who are my friends will not harm me.
 5. Mary who is my friend has come.
 6. The boys who are my friends are studious.

PARSING OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

150. Before parsing is begun, much drill in separating relative clauses from principal clauses will prove helpful. The following plan works well in the class room:

Have the pupils write the sentences on the black-board; enclose the relative clauses in parentheses; underline the relative pronouns and also their antecedents; as,

1. A man (who is honest) will be trusted.

The pupil, standing, says: "*Who is honest* is the relative clause, and *a man will be trusted* is the principal clause. *Who* is a relative pronoun and it connects the clause, *who is honest*, to the antecedent *man*. The clause is restrictive, limiting the application of the noun *man* to a certain kind of men. It has the logical value of the adjective, *honest*, and can not be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence."

2. Gold (which is a yellow metal) is used for money.

The pupil recites: "*Which is a yellow metal* is the relative clause and *gold is used for money* is the principal clause.

Which is a relative pronoun and it connects the clause, *which is a yellow metal*, to the antecedent, *gold*. The clause is non-restrictive because it does not limit the application of the noun *gold* to any special kind of gold, but it explains a fact about the antecedent and has the logical value of the appositive modifier, *a yellow metal*. The clause may be omitted without changing the leading thought in the sentence."

MODELS.

1. The evil *that* men do lives after them.

That, pron., rel., simple, ant. is "evil," with which it agrees in 3d, sing., neut.; obj., obj. of "do."

2. He will accept *what* is given him.

What, pron., rel., double, equivalent to *the thing which*.

Thing, the ant. part, is a n., com., 3d, sing., neut., obj., obj. of "will accept."

Which, the rel. part, is a pron., rel., simple, ant. is *thing*, with which it agrees in 3d, sing., neut.; nom., subj. of "is given."

EXERCISE XVII.

Copy the following sentences, enclose the relative clauses in parentheses, underline the relative pronouns and their antecedents, and tell whether the clauses are restrictive or non-restrictive:

1. I have lost the book that you lent me.
2. I know a little boy whose name is Jack.
3. The carrier, who had turned his face from the door, signed to him to go if he would.—Dickens.
4. He that is not with me is against me.
5. He laughs best who laughs last.
6. Benjamin Franklin, who wrote "Poor Richard's Almanac," was a famous scientist.
7. Where lies the land to which the ship would go?
8. The first spring wild-flowers, whose shy faces among the dry leaves and rocks are so welcome, yield no honey.—John Burroughs.
9. Not far from the gateway they came to a bridge, which seemed to be built of iron.—Hawthorne.
10. The catalogue that you sent for will come tomorrow.
11. That man may last, but never lives,
Who much receives, but nothing gives;
Whom none can love, whom none can thank,—
Creation's blot, creation's blank.
12. They are slaves who fear to speak
For the fallen and the weak;
They are slaves who dare not be
In the right with two or three.—Lowell.

EXERCISE XVIII.

Parse all the relative pronouns in Exercise XVII.

EXERCISE XIX.

Copy the following sentences, inserting an appropriate relative pronoun in each blank:

1. Man is the only animal ——— can talk.
2. I saw the man and the horse ——— were killed by the train.
3. The bird ——— was in the cage died.
4. This is the same article ——— I read.
5. There is no pupil ——— knows the rules of school.
6. The crow dropped the cheese, ——— the fox then ate.
7. They have a dog ——— follows them everywhere.
8. Why should we consult Charles, ——— knows nothing of the matter?
9. The boy closed the shutters, ——— darkened the room.
10. The boy took ——— fruit he wanted.

EXERCISE XX.

Copy the following sentences and fill each blank with *who* or *whom*:

1. He is a man ——— I believe is honest.
2. He is a man ——— I believe to be honest.
3. I met a man ——— I have no doubt was your uncle.
4. She married a man ——— I know to be worthless.
5. She is the girl ——— I thought you to be.
6. He is the man ——— was thought to be you.
7. We recommend only those ——— we can trust.
8. They have found the lady ——— they thought had been murdered.
9. He gave the book to Cora, ——— he thinks will read it.
10. A man entered, ——— I learned was the speaker.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

151. An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun which has, in addition to its substantive use, a questioning use in the sentence.

There are four words usually classed as interrogative pronouns; namely, **who**, **what**, **which**, and **whether**.

152. Who refers only to human beings, and to objects personified. **Who** is declined for case only.

Sing. or *Plu.*

Nom. who

Poss. whose

Obj. whom

153. What refers usually to things, but may refer to human beings; as,

What is he?—a lawyer?

What is indeclinable, and is never used in the possessive case.

154. Which may refer to either persons or things; as,

Which of you by taking thought can add one cubit to his stature?—Bible.

Which, as an interrogative, is not declined, and is used only in the nominative and objective cases.

155. Whether means *which of two*? It is now generally used as an adverb, but in older English it is found in the use of an interrogative pronoun; as,

1. *Whether* is greater, the gift or the altar?—Bible.

2. *Whether* of them twain did the will of his father?—Bible

REMARKS ON INTERROGATIVES.

156. A careful investigation will show that *who* and *what* are the only words which are now used purely as interrogative pronouns. *Whether* is obsolete as an interrogative pronoun, and *which* is an interrogative adjective when used interrogatively.

The interrogative word has the same use in the interrogative sentence as the responsive word has in the declarative sentence which answers the question; as,

1. *Who* called me? *John* called me.

2. *What* does John want? John wants a *horse*.

3. *Which* [horse] does he want? He wants the *black* [horse].

4. *Which* did he take? He took the *gray* [horse].

It will be observed that the words responding to *who* and to *what* are *nouns*, while the words responding to *which* are *adjectives*.

157. The **antecedent** of an interrogative pronoun is always the responsive word in the answer to the question. Because the responsive word does not precede, but follows the interrogative pronoun, some authors use the term *subsequent* for *antecedent*, when parsing interrogatives. This is unnecessary. The term antecedent, as used in grammar, means the expression (word, phrase, or clause) which expresses the same idea as the pronoun. The antecedent may either precede or follow the pronoun, or it may not be expressed at all.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

158. Study the following sentences :

1. Who is he?
2. John asked, "*Who is he?*"
3. John asked *who he was*.

The first sentence is a direct question, it ends with an interrogation point, and an answer is expected. In the second sentence the direct question is quoted. No change is made either in the words or in their arrangement. In the third sentence the question is simply referred to and a change in the arrangement of the words has taken place. The interrogation point is omitted and no answer is expected.

DEFINITION.—A question expressed in the exact words of the speaker is called a **direct question**.

DEFINITION.—A question used as a dependent clause, with changes from the original words of the speaker, is called an **indirect question**.

"*Who is he?*" in (1) and (2) is a direct question, and "*who he was*" in (3) is an indirect question.

PARSING OF INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

159. Since the antecedent of the interrogative pronoun is the responsive word in the answer to the ques-

tion, and since the responsive word is unknown unless the question has been answered, it follows that the person, number, and gender, are unknown, and that no mention of them need be made in parsing, unless the question has been answered.

MODELS.

1. Whose book have you? Mary's.

2. Who broke the window?

Whose, pron., inter., ant. is "Mary's" with which it agrees in 3d., sing., fem.; poss., limits "book."

(a) *Who*, pron., inter., ant. is the responsive word in the answer to the question with which it agrees in pers., num., and gen., unknown; nom., subj. of "broke."

(b) *Who*, pron., inter., nom., subj. of "broke."

EXERCISE XXI.

Write the parsing of the italicized words, and give attention to the punctuation, capitalization, and spelling.

1. *Who* goes there? A soldier.
2. By *whom* was the book written?
3. *What* can be done about it?
4. *What* are you looking for?
5. *What* is he? He is a doctor.
6. *Who* is he? He is the new minister.
7. *What* would a man give for his soul?
8. He asked *who* the boy was.
9. *What* would a man give his soul for?
10. *What* constitutes a state?
11. Ask her *what* she wants me to do.
12. George asked *what* the stranger wanted.

EXERCISE XXII.

Copy the following sentences and put *who* or *whom* in each blank:

1. _____ was here?
2. For _____ did he ask?
3. _____ did he inquire for?
4. _____ say ye that I am?
5. _____ were absent today?
6. _____ does he wish you to be?
7. _____ does he wish to be?
8. Dave asked _____ we thought he was.

9. Dave asked ——— we thought him to be.
10. He does not know ——— to send.
11. ——— do you think it was that called?
12. She is engaged to I don't know ———.

SUMMARY.

160. Following is an outline of the pronoun:

THE PRONOUN (117).

- I. Definition (17).
- II. Classes (118).
 1. Personal (122).
 - (1) Simple (122).
 - (2) Compound (232).
 2. Relative (137).
 - (1) Simple.
 - (2) Compound.
 - (3) Double.
 3. Interrogative (151).
- III. Properties.
 1. Same as nouns.
- IV. Constructions.
 1. Same as nouns.

EXERCISE XXIII.

In the following sentences parse the italicized words:

1. *Whom* the gods love die young.
2. Words, *which* are the signs of ideas, are divided into classes.
3. Teach *me* to hide the *fault I* see.
4. I tell *thee what*, Corporal Bardolph, I could tear *her*.—Shakespeare.
5. I sit *me* down and sigh.—Burns.
6. I sit *me* down a pensive hour to spend.—Scott.
7. I made up *my* mind to foot *it*.—Hawthorne.
8. I bought *me* a new knife.
9. *Methinks* he seems no better than a girl;
As girls were once, as *we ourself* have been.—Tennyson.
10. Well did they know *who* was the first aggressor.
11. *Who* killed Cock Robin?
12. *We* know *who* killed Cock Robin.
13. For *what* shall *it* profit a man, if *he* shall gain the whole world, and lose his own soul?—Mark viii, 36.
14. *Who* steals *my* purse steals trash.
15. *Whoso* sheddeth man's blood, by man shall *his* blood be shed.
16. Talent is *that which* is in a man's power; genius is that in *whose* power a man is.

17. He refused *what* was offered *him*.
 18. He loves he knows not *who* [whom].—Addison.
 19. He offered his daughter in marriage to *whomsoever* [whosoever] might subdue the place.—Irving.
 20. *Whosoever* will may come.
 21. All think *it* a miracle that he was not killed.
 22. We are such stuff *as* dreams are made of.—Shakespeare.
 23. O *judgment!* *thou* art fled to brutish beasts,
And men have lost their reason.—Shakespeare.
 24. *What* are the wild waves saying,
Sister, the whole *day* long?
 25. That tongue of *hers* will make trouble.
 26. There is no wind *but* soweth seeds
Of a more true and open life.
 27. *What* is so rare as a *day* in June?
 28. There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended,
But has one vacant chair.—Longfellow.
 29. I may do *that* I shall be sorry for.—Shakespeare.
 30. *Whatever* is, is right.—Pope.
 31. He is well paid *that* is well satisfied.
 32. The teacher wants *him* to leave the room.
 33. To be deprived of *that which* we are possessed of, is a
greater evil than to be disappointed of *what* we have only the
expectation of.—Adam Smith.
 34. Then let *us* say *you* are sad
Because you are not merry.—Shakespeare.
 35. Can storied urn or animated bust
Back to *its* mansion call the fleeting *breath*?—Gray.
 36. *Whom* the shoe fits, let *him* put it on
 37. *Who* discovered America? Columbus.
 38. And God said unto Moses, I AM *THAT* I AM.—Exodus
- iii, 14.
39. O! haste *thee*, haste, the lady cries;
"Though tempests 'round *us* gather,
I'll meet the raging of the skies,
But not an angry *father*."—Campbell.
 40. I fear *thee*, ancient Mariner!
I fear *thy* skinny hand!
And *thou* art long, and lank, and brown,
As is the ribbed sea-sand.—Coleridge.
 41. Bordered with trees *whose* gay leaves fly
On every breath *that* sweeps the sky
The fresh dark acres furrowed lie,
And ask the sower's hand.—Bryant.
 42. Triumphant arch, *that* fill'st the sky
When storms prepare to part,
I ask not proud Philosophy
To teach *me what thou* art.—Campbell.
 43. The *Spirit who* bideth by *himself*
In the land of mist and snow,

He loved the bird that loved the man
Who shot *him* with his bow.—Coleridge.

44. *My sister*, and my sister's child,
Myself and children three,
Will fill the chaise; so you must ride
On horseback after *we*.—Cowper.

45. I have observed that in all ages women have been more careful than *men* to adorn that part of the head *which* we generally call the *outside*.

46. Build *thee* more stately mansions, O my soul,
As the swift seasons roll!
Leave *thy* low-vaulted past!
Let each new *temple*, nobler than the last,
Shut *thee* from heaven with a dome more vast,
Till *thou* at length art free,
Leaving *thine* outgrown shell by life's unresting sea.—

Holmes.

REVIEW OF THE PRONOUN.

1. Define pronoun.
2. In what are nouns and pronouns alike? In what do they differ?
3. What is the literal meaning of the word *antecedent*? Is the meaning broader, or narrower, as used in grammar?
4. What is the literal meaning of the word *subsequent*? Is the term *subsequent* needed in grammar? Give reason for your answer.
5. Give a sentence in which the antecedent follows the personal pronoun; the relative pronoun; the interrogative pronoun.
6. In what are personal and relative pronouns alike? In what do they differ?
7. Name and decline all the personal pronouns.
8. In what are relative and interrogative pronouns alike? In what do they differ?
9. Why are the relative pronouns so called? Would the word *conjunctive* be more appropriate? Explain.
10. Name all the relative pronouns in English.
11. Make sentences in which *but* and *as* are relative pronouns.
12. In what respect is *what* peculiar as a relative?
13. When is a relative clause *restrictive*? *Non-restrictive*?
14. Make sentences illustrating *restrictive* and *non-restrictive* clauses and explain the punctuation.
15. Define interrogative pronoun.
16. Name the interrogatives. Should *which* be classed as an interrogative pronoun? Explain.
17. Why are the person, number, and gender, of interrogative pronouns usually unknown?

18. Why does a pronoun agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender, and not in case?

19. Explain the difference between a *direct* and an *indirect question*.

20. Name all the compound personal pronouns; tell how they are formed; make sentences illustrating their emphatic use; their reflexive use.

CHAPTER V.

THE ADJECTIVE.

161. It has been stated (18) that an **adjective** is an attributive word which expresses an attribute of an object without asserting it.

The principal use of the adjective is to limit the application of a noun or pronoun. It may have this use alone, or it may at the same time express some descriptive attribute of an object and thereby make the meaning of a noun or pronoun more definite.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

162. In the following sentences tell whether each italicized adjective expresses some descriptive attribute of an object, or merely narrows or limits the application of a noun or pronoun:

1. Snow is *white*.
2. Plato was a *great* philosopher.
3. *This* apple is *mellow*.
4. *Six* days shalt thou labor.
5. *Each* man looked at his neighbor.
6. There are *four* pecks in *a* bushel.

163. In the first sentence the adjective *white* describes the object represented by the noun *snow* by expressing quality.

In the sixth sentence the adjective *four* limits the application of the noun *pecks* without expressing quality.

There are two general classes of adjectives: **descriptive** and **definitive**.

A **descriptive adjective** is one which expresses some quality or other descriptive attribute of an object; as, *tall* tree.

A **definitive adjective** is one which merely limits the application of a noun or pronoun; as, We are *seven*; There are *twelve* inches in a foot.

Let the pupils classify all the adjectives in (2), (3), (4), and (5).

164. Other parts of speech are sometimes used as adjectives:

1. Nouns; as, We saw the *iron* bridge; He has a *gold* watch.
2. Pronouns; as, I do not know *what* book he wants.
3. Adverbs; as, He is the *very* man.
4. Prepositions; as, The *under* current does the mischief.

165. Adjectives sometimes have a substantive use; as, The *wicked* shall perish; but the *good* shall live. In such examples the noun is understood and the adjective should be parsed as limiting it. (See 24).

166. Inflection.—In many languages, adjectives change their form to agree in gender, number, and case, with their nouns.

In English, adjectives have no inflection whatever for gender and case, and none for number except the demonstratives *this* and *that* which have the forms *these* and *those* before plural nouns.

Comparison is a more general inflection of the adjective. Not all adjectives, however, will admit of comparison. We compare only those adjectives which express qualities that may exist in different degrees in objects. Methods of comparison will be considered under the head of **descriptive adjectives**.

167. As to form, adjectives are **simple**, **compound**, or **complex**.

1. A **simple adjective** is an adjective consisting of a single word; as, *good*, *large*.

2. A **compound adjective** is an adjective consisting of two or more words joined by a hyphen; as, "*three-foot* rules," "*deep-blue* sky."

3. A **complex adjective** is an adjective consisting of two or more words not joined by a hyphen; as, "*three hundred fifty* dollars."

DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

168. The descriptive adjective is usually divided into three subclasses: **common**, **proper**, and **verbal**.

1. A **common adjective** is any adjective not derived from a verb or a proper noun; as, *good* books, *tall* trees, etc.

2. A **proper adjective** is an adjective derived from a proper noun; as, *American* citizens, *English* poets, etc.

3. A **verbal adjective** is an adjective derived from a verb; as, *running* water, *twinkling* stars, etc.

COMPARISON.

169. **Comparison** is a change in the form of an adjective to indicate a difference in the degree of a quality in an object.

There are three degrees of comparison: **positive**, **comparative**, **superlative**.

The **positive degree** is the simple form of the adjective used to express merely the existence of a quality in an object; as, a *sweet* apple, a *long* stick.

The **comparative degree** is the form of the adjective used to show that of two objects one possesses a certain quality in a higher or lower degree than the other; as, This apple is *sweeter* than that.

The **superlative degree** is the form of the adjective used to show that one object possesses a certain quality in the highest or lowest degree of all the objects included with it; as, John is the *largest* boy in his class.

USE OF COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE FORMS.

170. The **comparative form** should be used when one part is compared with another part of the same whole; as, "John is *taller* than James." *John* and *James* constitute the whole or group considered, and "John," one part, is compared with "James," another part.

"John is *taller* than any other boy in the room." All the boys in the room constitute the whole of which

"John," one part, is compared with "any other boy," another part.

171. The superlative form should be used when a part is compared with the whole; as, John is the *tallest* boy in the room. All the boys in the room constitute the whole with which "John," a part, is compared.

If the whole about which one is thinking be made up of only two parts, it is correct English to use the superlative form when a part is compared with the whole; as, "The *sunniest* half of the house."

Note the following examples:

1. She thought him and Olivia extremely of a size, and would bid both to stand up to see which was the *tallest*.—Goldsmith.

2. "Ha, ha, ha!" roared Goodman Brown when the wind laughed at him. "Let us see which will laugh *loudest*."—Hawthorne.

3. These two properties seem essential to wit, more particularly the *last* of them.—Addison.

Note the following comparative forms:

1. Of two such lessons, why forget

The *nobler* and *manlier* one?—Byron.

2. We may well doubt which has the *stronger* claim to civilization, the victor or the vanquished.—Prescott.

3. Which is the *better* able to defend himself,—a strong man with nothing but his fists, or a paralytic cripple encumbered with a sword which he can not lift?—Macaulay.

172. The adjective *other* must be used with care when comparisons are made. The sentence, "Shakespeare is the best writer of all the *other* English poets," is wrong, because the word *other* implies a division of the whole (all English poets) in which one part is compared with another part.

Omit the word *other* and a part is compared with the whole and the superlative form is correctly used; as, "Shakespeare is the best writer of all the English poets."

The sentence, "Milton is *more* interesting than any of the English poets," is wrong, because the comparative form, *more*, is used in comparing a part (Milton)

with the whole (English poets). Milton is compared with himself. Insert the word *other* and a division of the whole will be made in which one part is compared with another part; as, "Milton is more interesting than any *other* of the English poets."

EXERCISE XXIV.

In the following sentences insert the word *other* where you think it should be. Give reasons:

1. John is better than any of his father's children.
2. Of all the girls in the room, Mary is the tallest.
3. No English poet has ever equalled Shakespeare in his portrayal of character.
4. There was no man who could make a more graceful bow than Mr. Henry.—Wirt.
5. No English poet has ever surpassed Shakespeare in his portrayal of character.
6. Cora has read more books than any girl in her class.
7. I sometimes sit and pity Noah; but even he had this advantage over all succeeding navigators that, when he landed, he was sure to get no ill news from home.—Lowell.
8. This is more sincerely done in Scandinavian than in any mythology I know.—Carlyle.
9. Jane is more beautiful than any of her sisters.
10. There is no country in which wealth is so sensible of its obligations as our own.—Lowell.

KINDS OF COMPARISON.

173. There are two kinds of comparison:

1. **Ascending**; as, *good, better, best; beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.*
2. **Descending**; as, *beautiful, less beautiful, least beautiful.*

METHODS OF COMPARISON.

174. There are three methods of comparison:

1. By **different terminations**; as, *great, greater, greatest.*

RULE.—Adjectives of one syllable, and some adjectives of two syllables, usually add *er* to the positive to form the comparative, and *est* to form the superlative:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
small	smaller	smallest
large	larger	largest
bright	brighter	brightest
brave	braver	bravest
happy	happier	happiest
able	abler	ablest
big	bigger	biggest
hot	hotter	hottest
pretty	prettier	prettiest

Observe the following changes in spelling:

(a) Final *e*, silent, is dropped before *er* and *est* are added; as, large, larg(e)er, larg(e)est.

(b) Adjectives ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before *er* and *est*; as,

big	bigger	biggest
red	redder	reddest

(c) Adjectives ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change the *y* to *i* before adding *er* and *est*; as,

happy	happier	happiest
lucky	luckier	luckiest

NOTE.—Some adjectives of one syllable may or may not change the *y* to *i* before *er* and *est*; as,

sly	slier or slyer	sliest or slyest
shy	shier or shyer	shiest or shyest
spry	sprier or spryer	spriest or spryest

2. By **prefixes**; as, *cheerful*, *more cheerful* or *less cheerful*, *most cheerful* or *least cheerful*.

Rule.—Adjectives of more than two syllables, and those of two syllables that can not be pronounced easily with *er* or *est* added to the positive, usually form their comparative and superlative degrees by prefixing *more* and *most* or *less* and *least* to the positive form; as,

beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
fruitful	less fruitful	least fruitful

NOTE.—In poetry adjectives of one syllable are often compared by prefixes; as,

A form *more fair*, a face *more sweet*
 Ne'er hath it been my lot to meet.—Whittier.

3. By different words; as,

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
evil }		
ill }		
much	more	most
many }		
little	{ less	least
	{ lesser	
old	{ older	{ oldest
	{ elder	{ eldest
late	{ later.	{ latest
	{ latter	{ last
near	nearer	{ nearest
		{ next
far	{ farther	{ farthest
	{ further	{ furthest

175. The following adjectives are defective in their comparison:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
out (adv.)	{ outer	{ outermost
	{ utter	{ utmost
in (prep.)	inner	{ innermost
		{ inmost
up (adv.)	upper	{ uppermost
		{ upmost (rare)
_____	under	undermost
_____	hither	hithermost
nether	_____	nethermost
mid	_____	midmost
middle	_____	middlemost
southern	_____	southernmost
northern	_____	northernmost

176. The different forms of comparison do not indicate the *absolute* amount of the quality in the objects compared but simply the *relative* amount. A quality may exist in an endless number of degrees in objects, but a quality in one object as compared with the same quality in another object can be equal to, greater than,

or less than, the quality in the other object. Where a number of objects are compared, one of them may possess a certain quality in the highest or lowest degree with reference to just those objects compared. Therefore we have and need only three degrees of comparison.

There is a class of adjectives formed by adding the termination, *ish* to other words; as, *greenish, bluish, boyish, childish, foolish, selfish, yellowish, mulish, etc.*

Some grammarians have called the form ending in *ish* the *diminutive degree*, but this form is a *positive degree*. Note the comparison of the following words:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
selfish	more selfish	most selfish
foolish	more foolish	most foolish
greenish	more greenish	most greenish
bluish	less bluish	least bluish
childish	less childish	least childish
childish	more childish	most childish

NOTE.—When *ish* is added to a noun or an adjective a new adjective is formed, which is in the positive degree.

DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

177. A **definitive adjective** is an adjective which merely limits the application of a noun or pronoun without expressing quality.

There are three sub-classes of the definitive adjective: **articles, pronominals, and numerals.**

ARTICLES.

178. **Articles** always limit nouns without expressing quality and are, therefore, classed as *definitive adjectives*. The **articles** are *the* and *an* (or *a*).

179. **The**, which is called the **definite article** because it points out an object more definitely than does the article *an* (or *a*), is a weakened form of the demonstrative word *that*.

180. **An** (*n* is dropped before consonant sounds) is a weakened form of the numeral adjective *one*, which was formerly written *ane*. *An* or *a* is called the **indefinite article** because it refers to an object indefinitely.

The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound; as, *an* orange, *an* hour.

An drops the *n* and becomes *a* before words beginning with a consonant sound; as, *a* boy, *a* union, *a* youth, *a* university.

Some writers use *an* before words beginning with *h*, where the accent falls on the second syllable of the word; as, *an* historical event, *an* hypothesis.

USES OF THE ARTICLES.

181. In general both the definite and the indefinite article single out individuals from the rest of a class. The definite article points out a particular individual; the indefinite, any individual.

It follows, then, that they are used principally with class nouns; rarely, with proper nouns or mass nouns.

182. The definite article is used:

1. To point out some object previously known or mentioned; as, "One night *a* wolf fell in with *a* dog. *The* wolf was all skin and bones, while *the* dog was as fat as he could be."

2. To indicate a whole class when placed before a class noun in the singular; as,

(1) In the sands of Africa and Arabia *the* camel is a sacred and precious gift.—Gibbon.

(2) *The* crow doth sing as sweetly as *the* lark when neither is attended.—Shakespeare.

(3) "Algebra is the science of *the* equation."

3. To take the place of the possessive case of the personal pronouns *his*, *her*, *etc.*; as,

The mouth, and the region of the mouth, were about the strongest features in Wordsworth's face.—De Quincey.

4. To give an adjective, when the limited noun is omitted, the force of an abstract noun; as,

"None but *the* brave deserve *the* fair."

5. To serve as a very strong restrictive adjective in emphasizing a word; as,

(1) Not a king, but *the* king.—Dodo.

(2) As for New Orleans, it seemed to me *the* city of the world where you can eat and drink the most and suffer the least.—Thackeray.

NOTE.—In such expressions as, "The deeper the well, the cooler the water," *the* before the adjectives, *deeper* and *cooler*, is not the article, but a survival of an old case-form of the demonstrative word *that*. The expression means "*By that* the well is deeper, *by that* the water is cooler." *The*, in such constructions, is an adverb of degree.

183. The indefinite article is used:

1. In its original sense as the numeral adjective "*one*"; as,

(1) All men are at last of *a* size.—Emerson.

(2) "He will be here in *a* minute."

2. To refer to any one object as a representative of the class; as,

A triangle has three angles.

NOTE.—As the indefinite article refers to *one* object of a class, it should not be used with a word denoting a *whole* class.

"A mullet is a kind of *a* fish," is incorrect, but "A mullet is a kind of fish," is correct.

3. To change an adjective into a pure class noun; as,

(1) Such are the words *a brave* should use.—Cooper.

(2) He is without *an equal*.

NOTE.—The nouns, *brave* and *equal*, may now have a plural form by adding *s*.

4. To change a proper noun into a class noun; as,

A Daniel come to judgment.—Shakespeare.

5. To change a mass noun into a class noun; as,

(1) "He hit the boy with *a rock*."

(2) "She has *a glass* filled with water."

6. To change an abstract noun into a class noun; as,

(1) If thou hadst *a sorrow* of thine own, the brook might tell thee of it.—Hawthorne.

(2) "She is *a beauty*."

(3) *A youth* to fortune and to fame unknown.—Gray.

NOTE.—An abstract noun merely names a quality, but with the definite article, the abstract noun becomes a concrete noun and refers to one of a class of objects. In the sentence, "She is *a beauty*," *beauty* is a concrete noun representing, not only the *quality*, but also the *object* that possesses the quality.

7. To form adjective phrases with other adjectives; as,

(1) "Full *many a* gem."

(2) "Not *a* drum was heard."

(3) "What *a* world of merriment."

(4) "But, said *never a* word."

(5) "How was I to pay off *such a* debt?"

(6) "A *few* days more."

(7) "A *hundred* men or more."

(8) "He has *a great many* friends."

NOTE 1.—In parsing, it is better to regard the italicized phrases as complex adjectives, than to construe each word separately. We might say that *not* in (2) limits *heard*, but that would change the meaning of the sentence. "A drum was not heard," *implies* that some one was beating a drum but we did not hear it. In (4) *never* might be construed with *said* with little or no change in the thought. In (6) what does *a* limit? It can not limit *days*, because *days* is a plural noun. Try parsing each word in *many a*, *what a*, and *such a*.

NOTE 2.—In the expressions, *a-fishing*, *a-hunting*, *aboard*, the *a* is not the article, but a reduced form of the preposition *on*.

184. General Rule.—As many objects or groups of objects are suggested as there are articles. There are many exceptions to this rule, but in doubtful cases, the rule will be helpful. In "A red, a white, and a blue flag," three flags are suggested. "A red, white, and blue flag." (One article, one flag.)

"He has a white and a black dog." (Two articles, two dogs.) "He has a white and black (spotted) dog." (One article, one dog.)

"A king and a priest" refers to two different men, but "A king and priest" means that one man holds both offices.

Exception to the rule:

A sadder and a wiser man,
He rose the morrow morn.—Coleridge.

EXERCISE XXV.

Point out the incorrect sentences and explain why they are incorrect:

1. Read the first and second stanza.
2. Read the first and the second stanza.
3. Read the first and second stanzas.
4. Read the first and the second stanzas.
5. Read the old and new book.
6. Read the old and the new book.
7. Read the old and new books.
8. Read the old and the new books.
9. Read the Old and New Testament.
10. Read the Old and the New Testament.
11. He preaches on the first and second Sunday of each month.
12. He preaches on the first and the second Sundays of each month.

EXERCISE XXVI.

Show the difference between:

1. They have (a) fish in their boat.
2. I have caught (a) cold.
3. He is bringing a (the) bucket.
4. Snow (The snow) is cold.
5. A blue and (a) red dress.
6. He ran to a (the) door.
7. He has a (one) horse.
8. Earth (The earth) is heavy.
9. He has few (a few) friends.
10. She has little (a little) sense.
11. Man (The man) is hard to understand.
12. I will read you a (the) story of a (the) dragon.
13. A boy (The boy) in the street lost his knife.
14. Women (The women) came to visit her.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

185. A **pronominal adjective** is a definitive adjective which, in addition to its attributive use, may have a substantive use in the sentence.

The pronominal adjectives are usually divided into four sub-classes: **demonstratives, distributives, indefinites, and interrogatives.**

186. A **demonstrative adjective** is a pronominal adjective which expresses the relation that an object bears to the speaker by pointing it out.

They are *this* (plu. *these*), *that* (plu. *those*), *former* and *latter*; *yon* and *yonder*, and *same*.

1. **This** is used to refer to an object near in time or space; as, *This* apple (in my hand) is better than *that* (in the basket). *These* is used instead of *this* when more than one object is referred to.

2. **That** is used to refer to an object distant in time or space; as, *That* apple (in the basket) is smaller than *this* (in my hand). *That* administration (Johnson's) was less prosperous than *this* (Cleveland's).

Those is the plural of *that*.

3. **Former** and **latter** are used to denote respectively the *first* and the *second* of two objects previously mentioned.

4. **Yon** or **yonder** is used to point out an object that is in the range of vision; as, *yon* bridge; *yonder* hill.

NOTE.—*Yon* and *yonder* are demonstrative adjectives, but they are never used substantively.

5. **Same** expresses the identity of an object; as, *This* is the *same* book.

187. A **distributive adjective** is a pronominal adjective which is used to express separation or isolation.

They are **each, every, either, and neither.**

1. **Each** denotes that all the objects are considered separately, and requires a verb or a pronoun in the singular; as, "*Each* pupil is expected to do *his* share of the work."

2. **Every** denotes that all the objects of a group are

considered individually, and requires a verb or a pronoun in the singular; as, *Every man at his best state is altogether vanity.*—Bible.

3. **Either** means one or the other of two, but not both. It implies a choice; as, "Take *either* of the books."

4. **Neither** (=not either) means not the one nor the other; as, "The two boys came to the class, but *neither* recited."

188. An indefinite adjective is a pronominal adjective which is used to express number or quantity indefinitely.

No special difficulty is likely to arise in the use of the indefinites; therefore, no definitions will be given here, but simply a list of words: *all, any, another, other, certain, divers, sundries, enough, few, many, little, much, no, several, and some.*

189. An interrogative adjective is a pronominal adjective which, in addition to its attributive use, is used in asking a question.

They are **what** and **which**.

Both refer to either persons or things, but *which* is selective.

Ex.—*What* book has he? (The title is sought.)

Which book has he? (The book in question is one of a known number of books.)

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

190. A numeral adjective is a definitive adjective which expresses number or order definitely.

The numeral adjective is divided into three sub-classes: **cardinals, ordinals, and multiplicatives.**

191. A cardinal adjective is a numeral adjective which expresses number definitely; as, *one, two, three, four, etc.*

192. An ordinal adjective is a numeral adjective which is used to show the position of an object in a series; as, *first, second, third, fourth, etc.*

193. A **multiplicative adjective** is a numeral adjective which implies multiplication; as, *twofold, threefold, fourfold, etc.*

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

194. The adjective, being an attributive word, is always in some way related to a substantive word to express an attribute of an object. There are five distinct relations which an adjective may have to a substantive word. These relations are called constructions and are known by the position of the adjective in the sentence.

The five constructions are:

1. Predicative Construction.
2. Adverbial Predicative Construction.
3. Appositive Construction.
4. Factitive Construction.
5. Attributive Construction.

195. The **predicative construction**.—This construction of the adjective is the original one. The cognition of an attribute of an object gives rise to a primitive judgment (31). A sentence expressing a primitive judgment always has the following form: subject + copula + attribute complement; as, "Snow is white." This is the original form of the sentence, the form that the judgment takes in the senses. This is the strongest construction that the adjective can have because the attribute is *asserted* of the subject. In the sentence, "Snow is white," *white* is said to have the "predicative construction" because it completes the predicate. *White* is also called the "attribute complement" because it completes the predicate and expresses an attributive of the subject.

For the three varieties of this construction see (87).

196. The **adverbial predicative construction**.—This is a modified use of the predicative construction. Sometimes a predicate adjective, in addition to completing the predicate and expressing an attribute of the subject, seems to express an attribute of the action expressed by

the verb. In so far as an adjective affects the meaning of a verb, it is adverbial. Compare the following:

1. The water looks smooth.
2. The water runs smooth.

In (1) "*smooth*" merely completes the predicate and expresses an attribute of the subject. In (2) "*smooth*," in addition to completing the predicate and expressing an attribute of the subject, tells the manner of the *running*. This shows its adverbial nature. *Smooth* in (1) is a predicate adjective. *Smooth* in (2) is an adverbial predicate adjective.

197. The appositive construction.—This is another modified form of the predicative construction. In the sentence, "A boy who is anxious to succeed will work," "*anxious*" has the predicative construction. Drop the subject "*who*" and the copula "*is*" from the clause, "*who is anxious*," and "*anxious*" will have the appositive construction; as,

"The boy, *anxious* to succeed, will work."

The appositive expression is usually set off by commas. Examples of the appositive construction:

1. "All people, *able* to work, should be required to earn a livelihood."
2. "All poetry, *ancient* and *modern*, abounds in sentiment."
3. Maud Muller on a summer's day
Raked the meadow *sweet* with hay.—Whittier.

198. The factitive construction.—This construction, also, is somewhat akin to the predicative construction. In fact, some authors affirm that the factitive adjective is always a predicate adjective used as the complement of the infinitive *to be* understood. In the sentence, "He made the ax sharp," "*sharp*" is a factitive adjective. Those who would supply the infinitive *to be* would make the sentence read: "He made the ax *to be sharp*." Now, "*sharp*" is truly a predicate adjective, but the meaning is not clear. One might think that *to be sharp* expresses the purpose of making the ax. To say it mildly, the

"to be" changes the sentence from good English to poor English.

There are authors who parse "*sharp*" as an appositive adjective because it follows the noun which it limits. Then the sentence would equal: "He made the ax *which is sharp*." This changes the meaning entirely. The sentence means, "He *sharpened* the ax." He made the *sharpness*, not the ax. This construction differs sufficiently from the others to give it a separate name. Of the names that have been suggested the most appropriate is the term *factitive*.

An adjective expressing the attribute produced upon an object by the action expressed by the verb, has the factitive construction; as,

1. He painted the house *white*.
2. He made the stick *straight*.
3. It made him *sick*.

Notice that factitive adjectives always become predicate adjectives when the verbs are put into the passive voice; as,

1. The house was painted *white*.
2. The stick was made *straight*.
3. He was made *sick*.

Observe, too, that the factitive adjectives may be changed into verbs; as,

1. He *whitened* the house by painting it.
2. He *straightened* the stick.
3. It *sickened* him.

The principal verbs that govern objects limited by factitive adjectives are *make*, *call*, *name*, *choose*, *elect*, *constitute*.

199. The attributive construction.—After an attribute is known to belong to an object, it may be attributed to the object; it need not now be asserted of it. This construction is indicated by placing the adjective immediately before the noun which it limits; as,

"Good books are *useful* companions."

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING ADJECTIVES.

200. In parsing an adjective, give:

1. Its classification.
2. Its degree, if it has degree.
3. Its construction.

MODELS.

1. *The* man has *two* horses *large* enough to draw the load.
2. The captain stood *firm*, but his soldiers, who were *treacherous*, made the situation *dangerous*.
 (1) *The*, adj., defin., art., def., used attributively to limit the noun "man."
 (2) *Two*, adj., defin., num., cardinal, used attributively to limit the noun "horses."
 (3) *Large*, adj., desc., pos. degree,—com. *large*, *larger*, *largest*,—used appositively to limit the noun "horses."
 (4) *Firm*, adj., desc., pos. degree, com.—*firm*, *firmer*, *firmest*,—used with the adverbial predicative construction to limit the noun "captain."
 (5) *Treacherous*, adj., desc., pos. degree, com.—*treacherous*, *more treacherous*, *most treacherous*,—used predicatively to limit the pron. "who."
 (6) *Dangerous*, adj., desc., pos. degree, com.—*dangerous*, *more dangerous*, *most dangerous*,—used factitively to limit the noun "situation."

EXERCISE XXVII.

In the following sentences, parse the adjectives, nouns, and pronouns:

1. Great is truth and mighty above all things.
2. Grief made her insane.
3. The white and fleecy waves look soft as carded wool.
4. Many a carol, old and saintly, sang the minstrels.
5. The silent moon ascends the starry sky.
6. There are three pear trees in the fifth row.
7. Who else came?
8. But he thought of his sister, proud and cold,
And his mother, vain of her rank and gold.—Whittier.
9. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.—Gray.
10. If parts allure thee, think how Bacon shined,—
The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind.—Pope.
11. The longest syllable, or monosyllabic word, in the English language is *strength*.
12. The word *unexceptionableness* has more different letters

and occupies more space in print, than any other English word.

13. To every Roman citizen he gives,
To every several man, seventy-five drachmas.
14. I know not what course others may take.
15. He was curious to know to what sect we belonged.
16. With a slow and noiseless footstep
Comes that messenger divine.—Longfellow.
17. He made the crooked straight.
18. He stood upon the topmost round.
19. Here living tea-pots stand, one arm held out,
One bent; the handle this, and that the spout.—Pope.
20. Farewell, my friends; farewell my foes;
My peace with these, my love with those.—Burns.
21. The sun that brief December day
Rose cheerless over hills of gray,
And, darkly circled, gave at noon
A sadder light than waning moon.—Whittier.
22. With fingers weary and worn,
With eyelids heavy and red,
A woman sat, in unwomanly rags,
Plying her needle and thread.—Hood.
23. A beautiful behavior is better than a beautiful form;
it gives a higher pleasure than statues and pictures; it is the
finest of the fine arts.
24. O *Alma Mater!* on thy corpse,
The winter rains shall fall,
And pitying winter clouds above
Shall drop a snowy pall!
And through your vacant passageways
That once were full of glee,
The northern winds will pass along
And sadly sigh for thee.—Clyde W. Hill.

SUMMARY.

201. We may now make a summary in the form of an outline:

THE ADJECTIVE (161).

I. Definition (18).

II. Classes (162).

1. Descriptive (168).

(1) Common (168,1).

(2) Proper (168,2).

(3) Verbal (168,3).

2. Definitive (177).

(1) Articles (178).

(a) Definite (179).

(b) Indefinite (180).

- (2) Pronominals (185).
 - (a) Demonstratives (186).
 - (b) Distributives (187).
 - (c) Indefinites (188).
 - (d) Interrogatives (189).
- (3) Numerals (190).
 - (a) Cardinals (191).
 - (b) Ordinals (192).
 - (c) Multiplicatives (193).

III. Forms (167).

- 1. Simple.
- 2. Compound.
- 3. Complex.

IV. Comparison (169).

- 1. Degrees.
 - (1) Positive.
 - (2) Comparative.
 - (3) Superlative.
- 2. Kinds (173).
 - (1) Ascending.
 - (2) Descending.
- 3. Methods (174).
 - (1) By Different Terminations.
 - (2) By Prefixes.
 - (3) By Different Words.

V. Constructions (194).

- 1. Predicative (195).
- 2. Adverbial Predicative (196).
- 3. Appositive (197).
- 4. Factitive (198).
- 5. Attributive (199).

REVIEW OF THE ADJECTIVE.

- 1. Define adjective.
- 2. Explain the difference between descriptive and definitive adjectives.
- 3. Name the three classes of the descriptive adjectives.
- 4. Make proper adjectives from America, England, France, Texas, and Michigan.
- 5. Give three uses of the definite article; of the indefinite article.
- 6. Give a reason for classing the indefinite adjective as a pronominal. May it be classed as numeral? Explain.
- 7. Name three simple adjectives; three compound; three complex.
- 8. Define comparison.
- 9. Compare *blue*. In what degree is *bluish*?
- 10. Illustrate the three methods of comparison.
- 11. What is meant by construction?
- 12. Write sentences illustrating the five constructions of the adjective.

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

202. A **verb** is a word which asserts. The verb may assert an attribute of the subject, or it may assert merely the relation between the subject and the attribute. The word *verb* is from the Latin *verbum*, which means *the word*. No sentence can be formed without a verb. It is for that reason the essential word of the sentence. *Verbals*—participles and infinitives—are not true verbs since they do not have the assertive power. They are forms of the verb, however, and will be studied in connection with true verbs.

I. CLASSES ON BASIS OF IDEA EXPRESSED.

203. In the following sentences, observe the use of each italicized verb:

1. Snow *is* white.
2. Some men *are* wise.
3. The sun *is* shining.
4. The sun *shines*.

In (1) and (2), the verbs assert merely the relation between their subjects and the attributes. They need the help of the adjectives “white” and “wise” to complete the predication.

A **relational verb** is a verb which expresses only a relational idea.

Relational verbs are also called **copulative verbs** because, grammatically, they connect the attribute complement to the subject. They are also called **verbs of incomplete predication**, because they are followed by an attribute complement which completes the predication.

In (3) *is* expresses the relational idea while *shining* expresses the attribute of action.

In (4) *shines* has a double use. It expresses the relational idea and, also, it expresses the attribute of action (shining) that belongs to the sun.

An **attributive verb** is a verb which expresses an attribute of an object of thought by asserting it.

Attributive verbs are also called **verbs of complete predication** because they complete the predicate without the help of an attribute complement.

EXERCISE XXVIII.

In the following sentences, what verbs are relational, and what are attributive?

1. The men are making hay.
2. Large birds fly very swiftly.
3. All things shall pass away from the earth.
4. Whatever is, is right.
5. The man has been sick a long time.
6. The boy has been studying a short time.
7. Why should the spirit of man be proud?
8. If a man be guilty shall he go free?
9. The apple tastes sour.
10. The girl looks beautiful in her new dress.
11. The boy turned pale.
12. They have grown old together.

II. CLASSES ON BASIS OF RELATION TO SUBJECTS.

204. Study the following sentences:

1. I *am* anxious for him *to leave*.
2. He *is* anxious for me *to leave*.
3. They *are* anxious for us *to leave*.
4. You *want* them *to leave*.
5. He *wants* you *to leave*.
6. Thou *art* going *to leave*.
7. We *are* going *to leave*.

In (1) *am* is limited to one subject, "I." *Is* may take any subject that is in the third person singular. *Thou* is the only subject that can be used with *art*. Observe that "want" (4) becomes "wants" (5) when the subject changes from the second person to the third person singular. The subject of *are* must always be plural (*you* may be singular in meaning.) These verbs are said to be finite, that is, limited to certain subjects.

A **finite verb** is a verb that is limited by person and number to certain subjects.

NOTE.—Finite verbs are true verbs because they have the power to assert.

To leave does not change in form when the subject changes from the singular to the plural, or from one person to another. The forms *to leave* and *going* may take subjects of any person or number. They are not limited by person and number to any certain subject, or subjects.

An **infinite verb** is a verb that is not limited by person and number to any certain subject, or subjects.

NOTE.—**infinite verbs**, or **verbals**, are not true verbs because they do not have the power to assert. They are verb-forms which perform the office of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

EXERCISE XXIX.

Point out the verbals and tell whether they are used as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

1. To see is to believe.
2. Seeing is said to be believing.
3. It is a sin to steal anything.
4. Telling lies is worse than gambling.
5. To do good should be our purpose.
6. He has no time to study.
7. We saw the smoke rising above the house.
8. The boy went running down the street.
9. She heard Paderewski play the piano.
10. They boast about their having given aid.
11. He can not be satisfied with doing nothing.
12. The coat worn by the beggar was ragged.
13. After hearing the news he departed.
14. The train being late, we returned home.
15. The bird was too young to fly.
16. A man has no more right to say an uncivil thing than to act one.—Dr. Johnson.

III. CLASSES ON BASIS OF RELATION TO OBJECTS.

205. Sometimes the action expressed by the attributive verb is limited by an object; as, "James struck the ball." Here the act of striking is limited to the object, ball.

The action is supposed to *pass over* from the subject

to the object. Such verbs are called *transitive verbs*, from the Latin, *transitivus*, to pass over. A transitive verb always involves an actor and a receiver of the act.

206. A **transitive verb** is a verb expressing action that is received by some object; as,

1. Moses *struck* the rock.
2. Columbus *discovered* America.
3. America *was discovered* by Columbus.

207. In such sentences as, "The sun shines," "He walks rapidly," the action is represented by the verbs as beginning and ending with the subject. The action is not thought of as *passing over* from the subject to an object. Such verbs are called *intransitive* from the Latin *intransitivus*, not to pass over.

208. An **intransitive verb** is a verb denoting action, being, or state, that involves only the subject; as,

1. The man *works* faithfully.
2. Plato *was* a philosopher.
3. The little child *sleeps* well.

209. Many verbs can be either transitive or intransitive, according to their use in the sentence.

1. Verbs usually intransitive may become transitive when used in a causative sense; as,

- | <i>Intransitive.</i> | <i>Transitive.</i> |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| (1) Birds <i>fly</i> . | Boys <i>fly</i> kites. |
| (2) He <i>walked</i> . | He <i>walked</i> the horse. |
| (3) The army <i>marched</i> . | The captain <i>marched</i> the army. |

2. Some verbs, usually intransitive, become transitive, when followed by cognate objects; as,

- | <i>Intransitive.</i> | <i>Transitive.</i> |
|----------------------------|---|
| (1) He <i>died</i> | He <i>died</i> the <i>death</i> of the righteous. |
| (2) He <i>lives</i> | He <i>lives</i> a noble <i>life</i> |
| (3) He <i>danced</i> well. | He <i>danced</i> a <i>jig</i> . |

3. Some verbs, usually intransitive, may be made transitive by prepositions, used either in composition or separately; as,

Intransitive.

- (1) He *has grown* tall.
- (2) She *laughed*.
- (3) They *go*.

Transitive.

- He *has outgrown* his clothes.
- She *laughed at* him.
- They *undergo* hardships.

4. Some verbs, usually transitive, may be used intransitively with a passive meaning; as,

- (1) Wheat *is selling* at a dollar a bushel.
- (2) The violin *tunes* easily.
- (3) The meat *cuts* tough.

NOTE.—Each sentence has a passive meaning because the subject names that which receives the act expressed by the verb.

210. The Object.—The word or group of words representing that which receives the act expressed by the verb is called the object of the verb. The object is always a substantive or an expression so used. A transitive verb always expresses *action*, but an intransitive verb may denote *action*, *being*, or *state*.

EXERCISE XXX.

In the following sentences, point out the transitive verbs and name their objects. Point out the intransitive verbs which are followed by attribute complements.

1. The man killed a bear.
2. The bear was very large.
3. The water is running rapidly.
4. They were cutting wheat.
5. He laughed at his own mistake.
6. That day Caesar overcame the Nervii.
7. The next day Brutus came over to the Capitol.
8. Socrates became wise.
9. Charles gave his sister a nice present.
10. The next day Congress took the formal vote upon the resolution.—Fiske.
11. He teaches her grammar.
12. He teaches her to do all sorts of work.
13. Behold the fowls of the air.—Bible.
14. Him followed his next mate.—Milton.
15. They chose him leader.
16. The daffodil is our doorside queen.—Bryant.

IV. CLASSES ON BASIS OF FORM.

211. There are three forms or parts of the verb called the **principal parts**, because from these all the tense forms are derived. The principal parts are:

1. The **present indicative**: The simple or root form of the verb; as, *see, walk*.

2. The **past indicative**: The form of the verb used to represent past time indefinitely; as, *saw, walked*.

3. The **past participle**: The form of the verb used to express time more definitely than the past indicative, by referring it to some other time implied by the sentence; as, *seen, walked*.

212. Tell how the past tense of the following verbs are formed:

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
look	looked	looked	fly	flew	flown
love	loved	loved	see	saw	seen
plow	plowed	plowed	give	gave	given
plant	planted	planted	run	ran	run

It will be observed that some verbs form their past indicative and past participle by changing the ending of the present indicative to "ed"; as, *plant, planted, planted*. Other verbs form their past indicative and past participle in some other way; as, *see, saw, seen*.

A **regular verb** is one that forms its past indicative and past participle by changing the ending of the present indicative to "ed"; as, *live, lived, lived; learn, learned, learned*.

An **irregular verb** is one that does not form its past indicative and past participle by changing the ending of the present indicative to "ed"; as, *give, gave, given; hear, heard, heard*.

NOTE.—The principal parts of a verb can always be determined by filling out the following blanks with the proper verb-forms:

I ——— now.

I ——— yesterday.

I have ——— already.

STRONG AND WEAK VERBS.

213. Verbs are divided into the strong and the weak conjugations.

A **strong verb** is a verb which forms its past indicative by changing a vowel of the present, without adding anything; as, *arise, arose; give, gave.*

All strong verbs originally had the ending “-n” or “-en” in the past participle; but this ending has disappeared from many verbs; as, *fight, fought [en]*. Many strong verbs, however, retain this ending; as, *drive, drove, driven; give, gave, given.* As the strong verbs are the oldest verbs in the language, they are said to belong to the **old conjugation**.

214. A **weak verb** is a verb which forms its past indicative by adding *ed, d, or t*, to the present; as, *plant, planted; hear, heard; deal, dealt.*

As the weak verbs include all new verbs and all new forms of the old verbs, they are said to belong to the **new conjugation**. The past participle of a weak verb is always like the past indicative. All regular verbs are weak.

NOTE.—The ending, *ed*, of weak verbs is the remains of the verb *did*, which in an early period of the language was added to such verbs as had no internal vowel change to denote past time:

“The fires burn *did*” became “The fires burned,” and finally, “The fires, burnt.”

The *did* became *ed*, or *t*, through the influence of pronunciation.

215. Most weak verbs are regular, but some are irregular; as,

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
<i>Regular</i>	{ walk plow count	{ walked plowed counted	{ walked plowed counted
<i>Irregular</i>	{ leave feel set	{ left felt set	{ left felt set

216. A few weak verbs have both regular and irregular forms; as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
1. kneel.....	{ kneeled knelt	{ kneeled knelt
2. pen.....	{ penned pent	{ penned pent

217. Some verbs have both strong and weak forms; as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
1. dig.....	{ dug (strong) dugged (weak)	{ dug (strong) dugged (weak)
2. cleave....	{ clove (strong) cleft (weak)	{ cloven (strong) cleft (weak)
3. thrive....	{ throve (strong) thrived (weak)	{ thriven (strong) thrived (weak)

LIST OF STRONG VERBS.

218. The following is an alphabetical list of strong verbs. The forms in parentheses are weak. All strong verbs are irregular.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke (awaked)	awoke (awaked)
be [am]	[was]	been
bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bore	born
bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld, beholden
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bit, bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
burst	burst	burst
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave, <i>to split</i>	clove (cleft)	cloven (cleft)
climb	clomb (climbed)	(climbed)
cling	clung	clung

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
come	came	come
crow	crew (crowed)	crowed, <i>obs.</i> (crowed)
dig	dug (digged)	dug (digged)
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, drunken
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	[went], yode, <i>obs.</i>	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung (hanged)	hung (hanged)
heave	hove (heaved)	hove (heaved)
hold	held	held
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
seethe	sod (seethed)	sodden (seethed)
shake	shook	shaken
shear	(sheared)	shorn (sheared)
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk, shrunk
shrive	shrove (shrived)	shriven (shrived)
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk, sunken
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote	smitten
speak	spoke	spoken
spin	spun	spun
spring	sprang	sprung

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove (staved)	stove (staved)
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank, stunk	stunk
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck, stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve (thrived)	thriven (thrived)
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake	woke (waked)	(waked)
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

NOTE.—*Was*, now used as the past tense of *be*, is from an old verb *wesan*. *Went* was formerly the past tense of *wend* (like sent from send), but *wend* has now become regular, and has for its past tense *wended*. *Yode* was the past tense of *go*, but it is now obsolete. The initial *g* has become *y*.

IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS.

219. The irregular weak verbs may be divided into two classes:

1. Those that add *d* or *t* in forming the past tense and past participle, usually with change of vowel.

2. Those that end in *d* or *t* and have lost the ending which was formerly added to this. The ending which has dropped off was *de* or *te*; as,

Three large sowes *hadde* she, and namo,
Three kyn, and eek a sheep that *highte* Malle.—Chaucer.

Verbs of Class II often shorten the vowel.

CLASS I.

Present Tense.

bereave
 beseech
 bring
 burn
 buy
 catch
 creep
 dare
 deal
 dream
 dwell
 feel
 flee
 have
 hear
 hide
 keep
 kneel
 lay
 lean
 leap
 leave
 lose
 make
 mean
 pay
 pen, *to inolose*
 say
 seek
 sell
 shoe
 sleep
 spell
 spill
 stay
 sweep
 teach
 tell
 think
 weep
 work

Past Tense.

bereft, bereaved
 besought
 brought
 burnt, burned
 bought
 caught
 crept
 durst, dared
 dealt
 dreamt, dreamed
 dwelt
 felt
 fled
 had
 heard
 hid
 kept
 knelt
 laid
 leant, leaned
 leapt, leaped
 left
 lost
 made
 meant
 paid
 penned, pent
 said
 sought
 sold
 shod
 slept
 spelled, spelt
 spilled, spilt
 stayed, staid
 swept
 taught
 told
 thought
 wept
 worked, wrought

Past Participle.

bereft, bereaved
 besought
 brought
 burnt, burned
 bought
 caught
 crept
 dared
 dealt
 dreamt, dreamed
 dwelt
 felt
 fled
 had
 heard
 hid, hidden
 kept
 knelt
 laid
 leant, leaned
 leapt, leaped
 left
 lost
 made
 meant
 paid
 penned, pent
 said
 sought
 sold
 shod
 slept
 spelled, spelt
 spilled, spilt
 stayed, staid
 swept
 taught
 told
 thought
 wept
 worked, wrought

CLASS II.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
bend	bent	bent
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blent, blended	blent, blended
breed	bred	bred
build	built, builded	built, builded
cast	cast	cast
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
feed	fed	fed
gild	gilded, gilt	gilded, gilt
gird	girt, girded	girt, girded
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted
lead	led	led
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
meet	met	met
put	put	put
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shed	shed	shed
shred	shred	shred
shut	shut	shut
slit	slit	slit
speed	sped	sped
spend	spent	spent
spit	spit, (spat, obs.)	spit (spat, obs.)
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
sweat	sweat	sweat
thrust	thrust	thrust
wed	wed, wedded	wed, wedded
wet	wet, wetted	wet, wetted

220. Irregular verbs are divided into three kinds: complete, redundant, and defective.

A complete verb is a verb which has a full set of principal parts; as, give, gave, given.

A **redundant verb** is a verb which has more than one form for one or more of its principal parts; as,

- | | | |
|----------|----------|----------|
| 1. burn, | { burnt | { burnt |
| | { burned | { burned |
| 2. get, | got, | { got |
| | | { gotten |

A **defective verb** is a verb which lacks one or more of the principal parts; as,

1. can, could, _____.
2. may, might, _____.
3. _____, quoth, _____.

NOTE.—Some authors name, also, the present active participle as one of the principal parts.

221. Impersonal verbs.—An **impersonal verb** is a verb used only in the third person, without reference to any definite agent. For grammatical subject, these verbs have the neuter pronoun, *it*; as,

It rains. It snows. It dawns. The old forms, *Me lists*—it pleases me, and *Me thinks*—it seems to me, are impersonal.

In Chaucer we read:

But natheles, whyl I have time and space,
Er that I ferther in this tale pace,
Me thinketh it acordaunt to resoun,
To telle yow al the condicioun
Of ech of hem, so as it *semed me*.

Me thinketh—it seems to me.

Semed me—it seemed to me.

We have the past tense in:

But great harm was it, as *it thoughte me*,
That on his shine a normal hadde he.

In the expression *me thinketh*, *me* is the dative object of *thinketh*, and *thinketh* is from an old Anglo-Saxon verb, *thincan*, to seem. Our verb *think* comes from the verb *thencan*, to think.

V. CLASSES ON BASIS OF USE.

222. According to their use, verbs are **notional** or **auxiliary**. Note the office of each italicized word in the following sentences:

1. The boy *runs*.
2. The boy *will run*.
3. The boy *has* a book.
4. The boy *has lost* his book.

In (1) *runs* expresses the idea of action. It forms the predicate alone. In (2) *run* expresses the idea of action, but needs the help of *will* to form the future tense. In (3) *has* expresses the idea of possession. In (4) *has* has dropped its own meaning, and simply helps to form the present perfect tense of *lost*. The idea of action is expressed by *lost*.

A **notional verb** is a verb used to express a distinct idea or notion of its own; as, The boy *has lost* his book.

An **auxiliary verb** is a verb which merely helps to express the meaning of a notional verb; as, The boy *has lost* his book.

NOTE.—The notional verb that follows an auxiliary verb is always a *participle* or an *infinitive*, and is generally called the **principal verb** in the verb-phrase.

In parsing, however, it is customary to consider the entire verb-phrase as the verb. In “The boy *will run*,” *will run* is the verb, the form used as the future tense of the verb *run*. In (4) *has lost* should be parsed as the present perfect tense of the verb *lose*.

USES OF THE AUXILIARIES.

223. The auxiliary verbs are *be* and *have* in all their forms; *do*, *did*; *may*, *might*; *must*; *can*, *could*; *will*, *would*; *shall*, *should*.

Be, as an auxiliary verb, has three uses:

1. With the present participle of a verb, to make the **progressive forms**; as,

He <i>is striking</i> .	He <i>has been striking</i> .
He <i>was striking</i> .	He <i>had been striking</i> .
He <i>will be striking</i> .	He <i>will have been striking</i> .

NOTE.—The progressive form represents an action as continuing.

2. With the past participle of a transitive verb, to make the **passive voice**; as,

He <i>is struck</i> .	He <i>has been struck</i> .
He <i>was struck</i> .	He <i>had been struck</i> .
He <i>will be struck</i> .	He <i>will have been struck</i> .

3. With the past participle of an intransitive verb expressing motion, to form the present perfect tense (old form); as,

1. "The birds *are flown*."
2. "The melancholy days *are come*."
3. "He *is gone*."

Have is used with the past participle to form the perfect tenses in the active voice; as,

1. He *has written* a letter.
2. He *had written* a letter.
3. He *will have written* a letter.

Do is used with the simple infinitive to form the interrogative, negative, and emphatic forms:

1. *Do* you know it?
2. He *does* not know it.
3. You *did* know it.

May (past *might*) followed by the infinitive expresses liberty or permission; as, You *may go*.

Must with the infinitive expresses necessity; as, You *must work*.

Can (past *could*) with the infinitive expresses power or ability; as, She *can read* Latin.

SHALL AND WILL.

224. Special attention should be given to the use of **shall**, **should**, **will**, and **would**.

1. **Shall** is used with the infinitive to form the future tenses of the first person; as, I *shall remain*. We *shall remain*.

2. **Will** is used with the infinitive to form the future tenses of the second and third persons; as, You *will go*. He *will go*.

3. **Will** in the first person and **shall** in the second and third, express resolution, determination, or promise.

4. **Should** and **would** follow the rules for **shall** and **will**.

5. A direct question takes the form of the answer expected; as,

1. *Will* he go? He *will* go.
2. *Shall* he be punished? He *shall* be punished.

6. Generally **shall** or **should** represents the act or state as independent of the control of the object which is represented by the subject of the verb; while **will** or **would** represents the act or state as independent of the author of the sentence, unless he is represented by the subject of the verb.

NOTE.—*Be, do, have, and will* are also used as notional verbs. *May, must, can, and shall* never form predicates alone.

EXERCISE XXXI.

Distinguish between:

1. He will (shall) leave to-day.
2. I will (shall) not meet him.
3. She will (shall) not sing for us.
4. Will (Shall) the boy bring the carriage?
5. He thought I would (should) tell him.
6. I will (shall) drown; no one shall (will) save me.
7. Will (Shall) you suffer for his offense?
8. I will (shall) be glad to hear from you.
9. He will (shall) obey me.
10. He will (shall) apologize to you.
11. He would (should) sit for hours in silence.
12. He would (should) do this for you.

EXERCISE XXXII.

Fill each blank with a form of *shall* or *will*, and explain the meaning of the sentence:

1. We ——— go to-morrow.
2. You ——— have your way.
3. You can do the work if you ——— try.
4. He thinks he ——— not be able to come.

5. ——— we go this afternoon?
6. He ——— go, if he can.
7. ——— I sing for you?
8. ——— you have hot or cold tea?
9. ——— we find you at your office?
10. I ——— be pleased to see you.
11. If we do not hurry, we ——— miss the train.
12. How ——— I send the money?
13. Hear me, for I ——— speak.
14. Choose ye this day whom ye ——— serve.
15. ——— you be patient? ——— you stay awhile?
16. ——— you accept this orange, or ——— I eat it?

EXERCISE XXXIII.

In each of the following sentences, explain the use of *shall* and *will*:

1. What shall we do?
2. You will compel me then to read the will.—Shakespeare.
3. Then wilt thou not be loth
To leave this paradise, but shalt possess
A paradise within thee.—Milton
4. I shall be happy to do your will.
5. Behold, I am against thee, saith the Lord of hosts, and
I will burn her chariots in the smoke, and the sword shall
devour thy young lions; and I will cut off thy prey from the
earth, and the voice of thy messengers shall no more be
heard.—Nahum, ii; 13.

PROPERTIES OF THE VERB.

225. Verbs have five properties: **voice, mode, tense, person, and number.** These properties are shown partly by inflection and partly by the help of auxiliaries. Sometimes *style* is mentioned as one of the properties of the verb, but it is not generally so considered by the best authorities. There are four styles of the verb:

1. The common style; as, You *move*.
2. The solemn style; as, Thou *movest*.
3. The progressive style; as, You *are moving*.
4. The emphatic style; as, You *do move*.

I. VOICE.

226. Study the following sentences :

1. Columbus *discovered* America.
2. The boy *has caught* the horse.
3. The trees *are growing*.
4. The horse *runs* rapidly.
5. America *was discovered* by Columbus.
6. The horse *has been caught* by the boy.

In the first four sentences, each verb represents its subject as naming the *doer* of the act. In the last two sentences, each verb represents its subject as naming the *receiver* of the act.

The property of the verb which shows the relation of the subject to the act expressed by the verb, is called **voice**. There are two voices: **active** and **passive**.

The **active voice** is that voice which shows that the subject represents the *doer* of the act; as, "Henry *struck* the ball."

The **passive voice** is that voice which shows that the subject represents the *receiver* of the act; as, "The ball *was struck* by Henry."

USES OF THE PASSIVE VOICE.

227. The passive voice has the following uses:

1. To make the assertion when the agent is unknown; as,

- (1) The window *has been broken* by some one.
- (2) The house *was robbed* in the night.

2. To conceal the agent.

- (1) The money *will be raised* if it is needed.
- (2) The information *was obtained* yesterday.

3. To shift the emphasis from the *doer* to the *receiver* of the act; as,

- (1) A present *was given* the child by its father.
- (2) The boy *was punished* by the teacher.

4. To vary the expression :

- (1) The officer seized the boys, who *were* then *punished* for their mischief.
- (2) Lord Howe was sincerely desirous of making peace and doing something to heal the troubles which had brought on the war; and he seems to have supposed that some good *might be effected* by private interviews with the leading Americans.—John Fiske.

228. Transitive verbs have the two voices, while intransitive verbs have only the active voice. An intransitive verb can not be changed to the passive voice because it has no object which may be made the subject in the passive voice. Every sentence whose verb is in the passive voice has three characteristics :

1. The subject represents the receiver of an act.
2. Some form of the verb *be* is used as an auxiliary.
3. The notional verb is the past participle of a transitive verb.

229. The active form is sometimes used for the passive; as,

1. Wheat *is selling* at a dollar a bushel.
2. The house *is building*.
3. He has apples *to sell*.

230. Discussion.—Some authors prefer to treat voice as a property of transitive verbs only. This view of the subject confuses the learner. Compare these sentences :

1. James *hoes* cotton.
2. James *works* faithfully.

If the pupil has been taught to say that *hoes* is in the active voice because it represents its subject as naming the doer of the act, he will be inclined to say that *works* is in the active voice for the same reason. Voice is a property of the verb which relates only to the subject. The distinction concerning the relation of the verb to an object is provided for in the classification of verbs into transitive and intransitive.

It may be said, however, that only attributive verbs have voice, since only attributive verbs express action.

EXERCISE XXXIV.

- (1) Tell the voice of each verb.
- (2) Change the voice and preserve the meaning of the sentence.

1. The task was accomplished in a short time.
2. The child has a beautiful book.
3. John does not use his buggy because it is broken.
4. We desire to be loved by everyone.
5. The poor man looks bad.
6. That little boy had five loaves.
7. Our guide had never visited the cave.
8. He holds him with his glittering eye.—Coleridge.
9. He that only rules by terror
Doeth grievous wrong.—Tennyson.
10. A few hoped and many feared, that some scheme of monarchy would be established.—John Fiske.

II. MODE.

231. Mode (Latin, *modus*, manner) is that property of the finite verb which indicates the manner of viewing the action, being, or state.

The action, being, or state may be viewed as a fact, or as doubtful, or as possible, or as a command. Therefore we distinguish four modes:

1. The **indicative mode**.
2. The **subjunctive mode**.
3. The **potential mode**.
4. The **imperative mode**.

INDICATIVE MODE.

232. The **indicative mode** is that mode which expresses something as a fact, or inquires after a fact; as,

1. The man *works* faithfully.
2. The boy *does not work* faithfully.
3. *Do you work* faithfully?

233. The **indicative** is sometimes called the *fact-mode* since it deals with facts, and things viewed as

facts. This mode has six tenses, the signs of which are the following:

- | | | |
|----------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Present: | Root-form of the verb; as, | I <i>write</i> . |
| 2. Past: | Change of vowel or <i>ed</i> ; as, | I <i>wrote</i> . |
| 3. Future: | Shall or will; as, | I <i>shall write</i> . |
| 4. Present P.: | Have, has, hast, hath; as, | I <i>have written</i> . |
| 5. Past P.: | Had or hadst; as, | I <i>had written</i> . |
| 6. Future P.: | Shall have or will have; as, | I <i>shall have written</i> . |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

234. The **subjunctive mode** is that mode which expresses action, being, or state, as *doubtful* or *conditional*; as,

- (1) If he *be* honest (doubt) he will pay me.
- (2) If he *study* (condition) he will learn.

The word *subjunctive* is from the Latin *sub*, under, and *junctus*, joined, and the mode is so named because it is most frequently used in subjoined clauses.

235. This mode has four tenses: **present tense**, **past tense**, **present perfect tense**, and **past perfect tense**. The subjunctive mode has no future tenses. A clause containing a verb in the subjunctive mode is generally, though not always, introduced by one of the conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *except*, *unless*, *lest*, and *that*.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES.

236. Because a verb is in a conditional clause, it does not necessarily follow that it is in the subjunctive mode. Whenever the condition is regarded as true, the mode of the verb is indicative. Conditional clauses may be divided into three classes: **logical**, **ideal**, and **contrary to fact**.

1. **Logical.**—This class of conditional clauses is used mainly in arguments and mathematical reasoning. If one thing is true, then it follows that another thing is true. The condition is viewed as a fact, and therefore the mode is *indicative*; as,

- (1) If he *is* poor, he is honorable (admitting he is poor).
- (2) If there *is* a God, He is just.
- (3) If he *was* here, I did not see him.

2. **Ideal.**—An ideal conditional clause expresses a mere supposition which may or may not be true. Doubt is implied, and the mode is *subjunctive*; as,

- (1) If thou *be* the Son of God, cast thyself down.
- (2) If there *be* a God, He ought to be just.
- (3) If he *were* present, he should have said so.

NOTE.—The ideal subjunctive is found mainly in literary English. The indicative mode is used instead of the ideal subjunctive in ordinary English of the present day; as,

“If he *is* at the store, hand him the money.”

3. **Contrary to Fact.**—In this class of conditional clauses, the past tense of the subjunctive mode is used to express a thought contrary to fact in the present time; the past perfect subjunctive is used to express a thought contrary to fact in past time; as,

- (1) If I *were* you, I would act differently.
- (2) *Were* it possible, I would do it.
- (3) If you *had been* here, he would not have gone.
- (4) *Had* I *been* in your place, I should have told him.

237. The subjunctive mode has other uses:

1. To express purpose; as,

Take heed lest thou *fall*.

2. To express intention; as,

The sentence is, that he *be fined* ten dollars.

3. To express a wish; as,

- (1) Bright star! Would I *were* steadfast as thou art!—Keats.
- (2) Thy kingdom *come*.

NOTE.—In the last example, *come* is said by some authors to be in the potential mode. The same thought would now be expressed by,

May Thy kingdom *come*.

4. To express result; as,

So live, that when thy summons comes to join
 The innumerable caravan that moves
 To that mysterious realm, where each shall take
 His chamber in the silent halls of death,
 Thou go not, like the quarry slave at night.—Bryant.

5. Sometimes to express an indirect question; as,

Ask the great man if there be none greater.—Emerson.

POTENTIAL MODE.

238. The **potential mode** is the mode which shows that the action, being, or state is viewed as in a potential relation. This mode may express:

1. Possibility; as, It *may* rain to-night.
2. Power; as, He *can* do the work.
3. Duty; as, You *should* obey your parents.
4. Wish; as, *May* you be happy.
5. Permission; as, You *may* go now.
6. Necessity; as, You *must* do your work.

239. Signs.—The signs of this mode are the potential auxiliaries, *may, can, must, might, could, would, and should*. This mode has four tenses: **present, past, present perfect, and past perfect**.

NOTE.—The potential may be used to ask a question; as, *Can* he read Latin?

IMPERATIVE MODE.

240. The **imperative mode** is the mode which is used to express a *command, entreaty, or supplication*. Usually in this mode, the subject is either omitted or placed after the verb. It has only one tense—the *present*.

This mode may express:

1. Commands; as,

- (1) *Keep* my commandments, and *live*.—Bible.
- (2) *Get* wisdom, *get* understanding.—Bible.

NOTE.—Commands are usually addressed to inferiors.

2. Entreaties; as,

- (1) *Do not leave me alone.*
- (2) *Wrest once the law to your authority:
To do a great right do a little wrong.—Shakespeare.*

NOTE.—Entreaties are usually addressed to equals.

3. Supplications; as,

- (1) *Give us this day our daily bread.—Bible.*
- (2) *Angels and ministers of grace defend us!—Shakespeare.*

NOTE.—Supplications are usually addressed to superiors.

241. The subject of a verb in the imperative mode is naturally in the second person, since commands are directed to a person addressed. But, in poetry, sometimes the imperative verb has a subject in the first person plural; as,

1. Well, *sit we* down,
And let us hear Bernardo speak of this.—Shakespeare.
2. *Part we* in friendship from your land,
And, noble earl, receive my hand.—Scott.
3. *Proceed we* therefore to our subject.—Pope.

NOTE 1.—The first person plural is not I+I, but I+you, or I+they, etc. We may, therefore, use the imperative with the subject *we*. The command is directed to *you* implied in *we*.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes the subject of a verb in the imperative mode is in the third person; as,

1. *Somebody call my wife.*—Shakespeare.
2. *Ruin seize thee,* ruthless king.—Gray.
3. *Be it enacted,* etc.—Statutes of Texas.

242. Discussion.—Many grammarians give only three modes: *indicative*, *subjunctive*, and *imperative*. Others give the following three: *indicative*, *potential*, and *imperative*. A large number give four: *indicative*,

subjunctive, potential, and imperative. A few give six: *indicative, subjunctive, potential, imperative, infinitive, and participial.*

Since infinitives and participles do not *assert*, and since they always fill the office of a *noun, adjective, or adverb*, they are not here classed as modes of the verb, but simply as verb-forms.

The potential mode is always a verb-phrase, made up of a potential auxiliary followed by the simple infinitive or by a participle of the principal verb; as, "John *may go*"; "John *may have gone*."

Historically considered, *may*, in the sentence "John may go," is the principal verb, and *go* is an infinitive, but in the development of the language *may* has lost its original force as a principal verb and has become a mere auxiliary. *May* helps the principal verb *go* to show that the *going* is in a *potential relation* with reference to John. The *going* may become an *actuality*; then it can be expressed by the indicative mode. *May go* should be parsed as the present tense, potential mode, of the verb *go*.

Sometimes a modal adverb used with the indicative has the effect of the potential mode; as,

Perhaps he will go—He may go.

EXERCISE XXXV.

Express the following thoughts as well as you can, by the use of the potential mode:

1. Perhaps he has left the city.
2. He will, probably, be here to-day.
3. Maybe he has paid the debt.
4. Possibly he will come to-morrow.
5. He will necessarily do the work.
6. Was it possible for him to be charged with it?

Express the following thoughts, as nearly as you can, by the use of the indicative mode and modal adverbs:

7. All obstacles may be overcome by effort.
8. His mistake might have arisen from ignorance.
9. He could not have committed the deed alone.

10. We must work or we must starve.
11. May you ever be happy and prosperous.
12. A man might have seen all these things without emotion.

EXERCISE XXXVI.

In the following sentences, tell the mode of each verb, and what special use it is of that mode:

1. Were I he, I should leave.
2. Think not that I speak for your sakes.
3. If thou go, see that thou offend not.
4. Though the man is poor, he is honorable.
5. But were I Brutus,
And Brutus Antony, there were an Antony
Would ruffle up your spirits.—Shakespeare.
6. "Now tread we a measure!" said young Lochinvar.
7. Turn away thine eyes, lest they behold vanity.
8. Greatly begin! though thou have time
But for a line, be that sublime.—Lowell.
9. Though he slay me, yet will I trust him.
10. Had he been prudent, he would now be alive.
11. Even though it rained, I would go.
12. Even though it has rained, I will go.
13. Even though it had rained, I would have gone.
14. If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while
a foreign troop was landed in my country I never would lay
down my arms,—never! never! never!—Pitt.
15. As unto the bow the cord is,
So unto the man is woman,
Though she bends him, she obeys him,
Though she draws him, yet she follows,
Useless each without the other.—Longfellow.

III. TENSE.

243. In the following sentences, tell what time each verb expresses and observe the different forms of the verb:

1. He *sees* the river.
2. He *saw* the river.
3. He *will see* the river.
4. He *has seen* the river.
5. He *had seen* the river.
6. He *will have seen* the river.

244. It will be observed that there is a difference in the form of the verbs which indicates a difference in the time of the action expressed. These different forms are called *tense forms*.

Tense is that property of the verb which indicates the time of the action, being, or state, expressed by the verb.

There are three **absolute tenses** of the verb to correspond to the three primary divisions of time: **present, past, and future.**

Each of the absolute tenses refers to only one period of time to indicate the time of the action.

245. The **present tense** is that absolute tense which generally represents the action, being, or state, as belonging to a present period of time. This tense is used to express the following:

1. Action, being, or state, actually present; as,
The boy *loves* to study.
2. Action, being, or state, true at all times; as,
The earth *attracts* the moon.
3. Action, being, or state, which occurs repeatedly or has become a habit; as,
(1) Henry *goes* to school.
(2) His uncle *smokes*.
4. Action, being, or state, which is to take place in the future; as,
I *go* to New York next week.
5. Past action, being, or state, as if present; as,
Paul *says* that he fought a good fight.

NOTE.—The last is called the *historical present*.

246. The **past tense** is that absolute tense which generally represents action, being, or state, as belonging to past time. This tense is used to express the following:

1. Past action, being, or state; as,
John *saw* the bird.
2. Future action, being, or state; as,
If I were you, I *would go* to-morrow.
3. Present action, being, or state; as,
If I *were* you, I would go to-morrow.

247. The **future tense** is that absolute tense which generally represents action, being, or state, as belonging to future time. This tense is used to express the following:

1. Action, being, or state, as belonging to future time; as,
I *shall go* next week.
2. Action, being, or state, as belonging to the present time; as,
I *shall go now*.

248. In (243) the verbs in the last three sentences refer to two periods of time to indicate the time of the action. A tense that *relates* to one of the absolute tenses is called a **relative tense**. There are three relative tenses: **present perfect**, **past perfect**, and **future perfect**.

249. The **present perfect tense** is that relative tense which generally represents action, being, or state, as completed in past time which extends up to the present. This tense is used to express the following:

1. Action, being, or state, as past but connected with present time; as,
Mary *has finished* her task.
2. Action, being, or state, to be completed in future time; as,
You may go when you *have finished* your task.

250. The **past perfect tense** is that relative tense which represents action, being, or state, as completed previous to some past time; as,

We *had done* the work before they came.

251. The **future perfect tense** is that relative tense which represents action, being, or state, as completed previous to some future time; as,

We *shall have gone* before they arrive.

NOTE.—For the signs of all the tenses in the different modes, see the conjugation of the verbs (255).

The time indicated by each tense can be made more definite by the use of adverbs; as,

I *studied* my lesson yesterday.

EXERCISE XXXVII.

In the following sentences, give the *voice*, *mode*, and *tense*, of each verb.

1. The danger will be great.
2. If I were you, I would not be ruled by prejudice.
3. Lift up your heads, oh ye gates.
4. Be ye lifted up, ye everlasting doors.
5. If the weather be fine, the procession will be large.
6. If the weather were fine, the procession would be large.
7. I could hear on all sides the tinkling of the bells.
8. If a man die, shall he live again?
9. Lead us not unto temptation.
10. Farewell, good Launcelot.
Alack, what heinous sin is it in me
To be ashamed to be my father's child!
But, though I am a daughter to his blood,
I am not to his manners: O Lorenzo,
If thou keep promise, I shall end this strife;
Become a Christian and thy loving wife.—Shakespeare.

IV. PERSON AND NUMBER.

252. Observe the changes in the form of the verbs to agree with their subjects:

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I <i>am</i> . | 1. We <i>are</i> . |
| 2. Thou <i>art</i> . | 2. You <i>are</i> . |
| 3. He <i>is</i> . | 3. They <i>are</i> . |

Only finite verbs change in form to agree in person and number with the subject. Nearly all the changes in the verb to show person and number occur in the second and third persons, singular number.

In most cases the person and number of the verb must be determined, not by the inflection, but by the sense.

Except in the verb "be," the only inflection for person and number *in common use* is *s* in the third person singular; as, He walks.

The inflections *st* (second person) and *th* (third person) are not in common use now. These forms are found in poetry and in the Bible.

253. Usage.—The best writers and speakers of to-day observe the following principles:

1. A singular subject requires a singular verb; as,

- (1) The boy *runs*.
- (2) The man *is working*.

2. A plural subject requires a plural verb; as,

- (1) The boys *run*.
- (2) The men *are working*.

3. A subject which is a collective noun requires a singular verb if the collection is considered as a whole; a plural verb if the individuals are considered; as,

- (1) The audience *was* large.
- (2) The audience *were* in tears.

4. A compound subject, singular in meaning, requires a singular verb; as,

- (1) Bread and milk *is* a good food.
- (2) A laggard in love and dastard in war *was* to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.—Scott.

5. Two or more singular subjects considered separately require a singular verb; as,

- (1) Neither James nor Henry *is* qualified.
- (2) The father or the son *is* in error.

6. Two or more singular subjects taken together require a plural verb; as,

- (1) John and James *are* happy.
- (2) Corn and wheat *are* useful plants.

7. If the subject consists of two or more parts of different person or number, the verb usually agrees with the one nearest to it; as,

- (1) One or two *are* in the room.
- (2) Either you or I *am* responsible for it.

NOTE.—It is better to avoid this last construction. The sentence should read: Either you are responsible for it or I am.

8. The expletive "*it*" governs the verb in the third person singular, without reference to the logical subject; as,

- (1) It is wrong *to steal* and *to lie*.
- (2) I swear it is better *to be* lowly born,
And *range* with humble livers in content,
Than to be perked up in a glistening grief
And wear a golden sorrow.—Shakespeare.

EXERCISE XXXVIII.

Fill the following blanks with suitable words:

1. Either she or I _____ to go.
2. Either of you _____ able to do the work.
3. Each of the pupils _____ studied the lesson.
4. You or Mary _____ in the wrong.
5. Every man, woman, and child _____ lost.
6. Mathematics _____ his favorite study.
7. The condition of the streets _____ very good.
8. He said that you _____ in the room.
9. Oats _____ selling at a good price.
10. Everybody _____ very kind to her.
11. None of our party _____ hurt.
12. What sounds _____ each of the vowels?

Using the present tense, write sentences in which each verb has

1. Two or more singular subjects joined by *and*.
2. Two or more singular subjects joined by *or* or *nor*.
3. Two or more subjects differing in number.
4. Two or more subjects differing in person.
5. For its subject a collective noun expressing the idea of *unity*.
6. For its subject a collective noun expressing the idea of *plurality*.

CONJUGATION.

254. In English, only the present and past tenses are indicated by inflection. All other tenses are made

up of verb-phrases. The systematic arrangement of the forms (including verb-phrases) of the verb in all its modes, tenses, persons, and numbers, is called **conjugation**.

255. It is better for the pupils to build up the conjugation of a verb under the direction of the teacher than to commit it to memory from the book. The following is the conjugation of the verb **be**. Learn the forms, paying no attention to the line at the right of each verb:

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Present.
be or am.

Past.
was.

Past Participle.
been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. (I) am _____. | 1. (We) are _____. |
| 2. { (You) are _____. | 2. (You) are _____. |
| (Thou) art _____. | |
| 3. (He) is _____. | 3. (They) are _____. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. (I) was _____. | 1. (We) were _____. |
| 2. { (You) were _____. | 2. (You) were _____. |
| (Thou) wast _____. | |
| 3. (He) was _____. | 3. (They) were _____. |

Future Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. (I) shall be _____. | 1. (We) shall be _____. |
| 2. { (You) will be _____. | 2. (You) will be _____. |
| (Thou) wilt be _____. | |
| 3. (He) will be _____. | 3. (They) will be _____. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. (I) have been _____. | 1. (We) have been _____. |
| 2. { (You) have been _____. | 2. (You) have been _____. |
| (Thou) hast been _____. | |
| 3. (He) has been _____. | 3. (They) have been _____. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. (I) had been _____. | 1. (We) had been _____. |
| 2. { (You) had been _____. | 2. (You) had been _____. |
| (Thou) hadst been _____. | |
| 3. (He) had been _____. | 3. (They) had been _____. |

Future Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. (I) shall have been —. | 1. (We) shall have been —. |
| 2. { (You) will have been —. | 2. (You) will have been —. |
| { (Thou) wilt have been —. | |
| 3. (He) will have been —. | 3. (They) will have been —. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1. (If I) be —. | 1. (If we) be —. |
| 2. { (If you) be —. | 2. (If you) be —. |
| { (If thou) be —. | |
| 3. (If he) be —. | 3. (If they) be —. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. (If I) were —. | 1. (If we) were —. |
| 2. { (If you) were —. | 2. (If you) were —. |
| { (If thou) were (or wert). | |
| 3. (If he) were —. | 3. (If they) were —. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. (If I) have been —. | 1. (If we) have been —. |
| 2. { (If you) have been —. | 2. (If you) have been —. |
| { (If thou) have been —. | |
| 3. (If he) have been —. | 3. (If they) have been —. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. (If I) had been —. | 1. (If we) had been —. |
| 2. { (If you) had been —. | 2. (If you) had been —. |
| { (If thou) had been —. | |
| 3. (If he) had been —. | 3. (If they) had been —. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. (I) may be —. | 1. (We) may be —. |
| 2. { (You) may be —. | 2. (You) may be —. |
| { (Thou) mayest be —. | |
| 3. (He) may be —. | 3. (They) may be —. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. (I) might be —. | 1. (We) might be —. |
| 2. { (He) might be —. | 2. (You) might be —. |
| { (Thou) mightest be —. | |
| 3. (He) might be —. | 3. (They) might be —. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. (I) may have been —. | 1. (We) may have been —. |
| 2. { (You) may have been —. | 2. (You) may have been —. |
| { (Thou) mayest have been —. | |
| 3. (He) may have been —. | 3. (They) may have been —. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. (I) might have been —. | 1. (We) might have been —. |
| 2. { (You) might have been —. | 2. (You) might have been —. |
| { (Thou) mightest have been—. | |
| 3. (He) might have been —. | 3. (They) might have been—. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 2. Be, or do (thou) be —. | 2. Be, or do (ye or you) be —. |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|

*Infinitives.**Present.*

To be —.

Perfect.

To have been —.

*Participles.**Present.*

Being —.

Past.

Been.

Perfect.

Having been —.

MOVE.

Principal Parts.

Present.
Move.

Past.
Moved.

Past Participle.
Moved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------|
| 1. (I) move. | 1. (We) move. |
| 2. { (You) move. | 2. (You) move. |
| { (Thou) movest. | |
| 3. (He) moves. | 3. (They) move. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------|
| 1. (I) moved. | 1. (We) moved. |
| 2. { (You) moved. | 2. (You) moved. |
| { (Thou) movedst. | |
| 3. (He) moved. | 3. (They) moved. |

Future Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. (I) shall move. | 1. (We) shall move. |
| 2. { (You) will move. | 2. (You) will move. |
| { (Thou) wilt move. | |
| 3. (He) will move. | 3. (They) will move. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. (I) have moved. | 1. (We) have moved. |
| 2. { (You) have moved. | 2. (You) have moved. |
| { (Thou) hast moved. | |
| 3. (He) has moved. | 3. (They) have moved. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. (I) had moved. | 1. (We) had moved. |
| 2. { (You) had moved. | 2. (You) had moved. |
| { (Thou) hadst moved. | |
| 3. (He) had moved. | 3. (They) had moved. |

Future Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. (I) shall have moved. | 1. (We) shall have moved. |
| 2. { (You) will have moved. | 2. (You) will have moved. |
| { (Thou) wilt have moved. | |
| 3. (He) will have moved. | 3. (They) will have moved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1. (If I) move. | 1. (If we) move. |
| 2. { (If you) move. | 2. (If you) move. |
| { (If thou) move. | |
| 3. (If he) move. | 3. (If they) move. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. (If I) moved. | 1. (If we) moved. |
| 2. { (If you) moved. | 2. (If you) moved. |
| { (If thou) moved. | |
| 3. (If he) moved. | 3. (If they) moved. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. (If I) have moved. | 1. (If we) have moved. |
| 2. { (If you) have moved. | 2. (If you) have moved. |
| { (If thou) have moved. | |
| 3. (If he) have moved. | 3. (If they) have moved. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. (If I) had moved. | 1. (If we) had moved. |
| 2. { (If you) had moved. | 2. (If you) had moved. |
| { (If thou) had moved. | |
| 3. (If he) had moved. | 3. (If they) had moved. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. (I) may move. | 1. (We) may move. |
| 2. { (You) may move. | 2. (You) may move. |
| { (Thou) mayest move. | |
| 3. (He) may move. | 3. (They) may move. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. (I) might move. | 1. (We) might move. |
| 2. { (You) might move. | 2. (You) might move. |
| { (Thou) mightest move. | |
| 3. (He) might move. | 3. (They) might move. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. (I) may have moved. | 1. (We) may have moved. |
| 2. { (You) may have moved. | 2. (You) may have moved. |
| 2. { (Thou) mayest have moved. | |
| 3. (He) may have moved. | 3. (They) may have moved. |

Past Perfect Tense

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. (I) might have moved. | 1. (We) might have moved. |
| 2. { (You) might have moved. | 2. (You) might have moved. |
| 2. { (Thou) mightest have moved | |
| 3. (He) might have moved. | 3. (They) might have moved. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 2. Move, or do (thou) move. | 2. Move, or do (ye or you) move. |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|

*Infinitives.**Present.**Perfect*

To move.

To have moved.

*Participles.**Present.**Past.**Perfect.*

Moving.

[Moved]

Having moved.

PASSIVE VOICE.

256. To build up the conjugation in the **passive voice**, place the **past participle** of a transitive verb on the lines in the conjugation of the verb *be* (**255**). Thus,

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. (I) am moved. | 1. (We) are moved. |
| 2. { (You) are moved, | 2. (You) are moved. |
| 2. { (Thou) art moved. | |
| 3. (He) is moved. | 3. (They) are moved. |

Etc.

PROGRESSIVE FORMS.

257. To build up the conjugation in the **progressive form**, place the **present participle** of the verb on the lines in the conjugation of the verb *be* (**255**). Thus,

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. (I) am *moving*.
2. { (You) are *moving*.
- { (Thou) art *moving*.
3. (He) is *moving*.

Plural.

1. (We) are *moving*.
2. (You) are *moving*.
3. (They) are *moving*.

Etc.

SYNOPSIS.

258. A *synopsis* of a verb is the systematic arrangement of the forms in all the modes and tenses in one person and number. The following is a synopsis of the verb *move*, in the indicative mode, first person, singular:

<i>Present,</i>	(I) move.
<i>Past,</i>	(I) moved.
<i>Future,</i>	(I) shall move.
<i>Present Perfect,</i>	(I) have moved.
<i>Past Perfect,</i>	(I) had moved.
<i>Future Perfect,</i>	(I) shall have moved.

Write synopses of the verbs, *see*, *walk*, and *teach*.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING VERBS.

259. In parsing a verb, give:

1. Its classification (a) as to form, (b) as to objects.
2. Its properties,—voice, mode, tense, person, and number.
3. Its subject, and state the agreement.

MODELS.

1. James *saw* the river.
 2. You *were* absent yesterday.
 3. The man *was struck* by the officer.
- (1) *Saw*, v., irreg., trans., act., indic., past; 3d, sing., to agree with its subj. "James."
- (2) *Were*, v., irreg., intrans., act., indic., past; 2d, pl., to agree with its subj. "you."
- (3) *Was struck*, v., irreg., trans., pass., indic., past; 3d, sing., to agree with its subj. "man."

EXERCISE XXXIX.

Parse the verbs in the following sentences:

1. Every triangle has three sides.
2. The boat struck on a rock.
3. The boy struck the ball.
4. The ship is sinking beneath the tide.
5. Have patience with me and I will pay thee all.
6. If you wish to know the truth, speak the truth.
7. Shall we submit to chains and slavery?
8. The place was covered with flowers.
9. I could not go because my buggy was broken.
10. I would I were with him.
11. He is talking nonsense.
12. Pass we then,
For so Heaven's pleasure is.—Dante.
13. If I could assist you, I would willingly.
14. I have been young, and now am old, yet have I not
seen the righteous forsaken.—Bible.
15. The rose smells sweet.
16. If he is here, ask him to come in.
17. If he were here, he would come in.
18. If he be at home, hand him this book.
19. The noble Brutus
Hath told you that Caesar was ambitious:
If it were so, it was a grievous fault,
And grievously hath Caesar answered it.—Shakespeare.
20. The broad sun above laughed a pitiless laugh.
21. We had had no water since our daylight breakfast;
our lunch on the mountain had been moistened only by the
fog.—Warner.
22. When I have completed this work, I will visit you.
23. Some murmur when their sky is clear
And wholly bright to view,
If one small speck of dark appear
In their great heaven of blue.—Trench.
24. There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune;
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.—Shakespeare.

SUMMARY.

260. We may now make a summary in the form of an outline.

THE VERB (202).**1. Definition.**

II. Classes.

1. On Basis of Idea Expressed (203).
 - (1) Relational.
 - (2) Attributive.
2. On Basis of Relation to Subjects (204).
 - (1) Finite.
 - (2) Infinite, or Verbals.
 - (a) Infinitives.
 - (b) Participles.
3. On Basis of Relation to Objects (205).
 - (1) Transitive.
 - (2) Intransitive.
4. On Basis of Form (211).
 - (1) Regular.
 - (2) Irregular.
 - (a) Complete.
 - (b) Defective.
 - (c) Redundant.
5. On Basis of Use.
 - (1) Notional (Principal).
 - (2) Auxiliary.

III. Properties (225).

1. Voice (226).
 - (1) Active.
 - (2) Passive.
2. Mode (231).
 - (1) Indicative (232).
 - (2) Subjunctive (234).
 - (3) Potential (238).
 - (4) Imperative (240).
3. Tense (243).
 - (1) Absolute.
 - (a) Present.
 - (b) Past.
 - (c) Future.
 - (2) Relative.
 - (a) Present Perfect.
 - (b) Past Perfect.
 - (c) Future Perfect.
4. Person (252).
 - (1) First.
 - (2) Second.
 - (3) Third.
5. Number (252).
 - (1) Singular.
 - (2) Plural.

IV. Conjugation (254).

V. Synopsis (258).

REVIEW OF THE VERB.

1. What is a verb? Give literal meaning.
2. What is a relational verb? An attributive verb?
3. Illustrate the difference between *finite* and *infinite* verbs.
4. What is a transitive verb? An intransitive verb?
5. Show how some intransitive verbs become transitive; how some transitive verbs become intransitive.
6. What is a regular verb? An irregular verb? A strong verb? A weak verb? Give the origin of the ending *ed*.
7. What is a complete verb? A defective verb? A redundant verb? Give examples of each.
8. What is a notional verb? An auxiliary verb?
9. Name the properties of the verb.
10. What is voice? What kinds of verbs have voice? Explain. How is the passive voice formed? What kind of verbs have the passive voice? Why?
11. Define mode. How many modes are there? Are grammarians agreed as to the number? What modes do you think should be recognized? Why? Define and give examples of each mode.
12. What is tense? How many natural divisions of time? How many tenses? Define and give examples of each tense. What tenses are indicated by inflection? How are the others indicated? Give the uses of the present tense.
13. Give five principles governing the agreement of the verb with its subject in person and number.
14. What is conjugation? Conjugate the verb *sit*.
15. Define synopsis. Give a synopsis of the verb *set*.
16. Give the rules for the use of *shall* and *will*.

CHAPTER VII.

THE ADVERB.

261. It has already been stated (18) that an **adverb** is an attributive word which expresses an attribute of an attribute or of a relation. The word adverb literally means *joined to a verb*, and the class was so named because its commonest use is to limit a verb. But the adverb may limit:

1. A verb; as, He *runs swiftly*.
2. A verbal; as, He ought *to run swiftly*; He, *running swiftly*, won the race.
3. An adjective; as, He is *very tall*.
4. An adverb; as, He walks *too rapidly*.

5. A preposition; as, He threw the stone *almost across* the river.

6. A prepositional phrase; as, He labors *chiefly for himself*.

7. A sentence; as, *Perhaps he will go.*

NOTE 1.—Sometimes an adverb limits a word understood; as, When will you go? *Now.* The complete answer is, "I will go *now*," in which *now* limits *will go*.

NOTE 2.—*Yes* and *no* are usually classed as adverbs for historical reasons, but they have little or no adverbial force in modern English. When they are used as answers to questions they have no adverbial use at all, but are equivalent to complete sentences; as,

1. Did he come? *Yes.*

2. Did you see him? *No.*

In (1) *yes* means, "He did come."

In (2) *no* means, "I did not see him."

In such a sentence as, "Yes you did tell me," *yes* has something of its original adverbial force. It is used to strengthen the statement, but it is not a repetition of it. *Yes* may be called an adverb of affirmation.

CLASSES ON BASIS OF USE.

262. Observe the use of each italicized adverb in the following sentences:

1. The boy studies *faithfully*.

2. The tree is *very* large.

3. *When* did she go?

4. James asked *where* she went.

5. I will go *when* the train arrives.

6. I visited the city *where* Columbus was born.

7. Have you studied your lesson? *Yes.*

8. Can you read French? *No.*

263. The adverbs in (1) and (2) have merely a limiting use in the sentence.

Those in (3) and (4), in addition to their limiting use, are used to ask questions.

Those in (5) and (6), in addition to their limiting use, have a connective use in the sentence.

Yes and *no* have no grammatical relation to the sen-

tences immediately preceding them. They are used independently, being equivalent to complete sentences. In their use they resemble interjections.

Thus on the basis of use, adverbs are divided into four classes: **pure**, **interrogative**, **conjunctive**, and **responsive**.

1. A **pure adverb** is an adverb that merely limits another word; as,

Large birds fly *swiftly*.

2. An **interrogative adverb** is an adverb which, in addition to its limiting use, is used to ask a question; as,

Why were you late?

3. A **conjunctive adverb** is an adverb which, in addition to its limiting use, has a connective use in the sentence; as,

They live *where* oranges are plentiful.

4. A **responsive adverb** is a word, without syntactical relation, used to answer a question; as,

Is the room warm enough? *Yes*.

PURE ADVERBS.

264. This class includes a very large number of adverbs. Adverbs of this class may be used in simple sentences as well as in complex and compound sentences, since in their use they simply limit other words.

Many of the *pure adverbs* admit of comparison. The kinds, methods, and degrees, are the same as those of the adjective (169).

The principles governing the use of the comparative and the superlative forms of the adjective, govern the use of the comparative and the superlative forms of the adverb. (See 170, 171).

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

265. Adverbs ending in *ly* are generally compared by prefixing *more* or *less*, and *most* or *least*; as,

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
rapidly	more rapidly	most rapidly
faithfully	more faithfully	most faithfully
keenly	less keenly	least keenly

266. Some adverbs add the suffixes *er* and *est* to the positive form to make the comparative and the superlative forms; as,

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
soon	sooner	soonest
often	oftener	oftenest
fast	faster	fastest

267. The following adverbs are often used as adjectives. They are either irregular or defective in their comparison:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
well	better	best
ill	worse	worst
much	more	most
little	less	least
nigh }	nearer	{ nearest
near }		{ next
far	farther	farthest
_____	further	furthest
late	later	{ latest
(<i>rathe, obs.</i>)	rather	{ last

NOTE 1.—*Further* and *furthest* are now generally used to express something additional without reference to space; *farther* and *farthest* are used when referring to distance in space.

NOTE 2.—*Rather* is the comparative form of an old adjective *rathe*, meaning *early*. *Rathe* was used both as an adjective and as an adverb; as,

1. Bring the *rathe* primrose that forsaken dies.—Milton.
2. Why rise ye up so *rathe*?—Chaucer.

INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS.

268. This class includes only a small number of adverbs. The following are the most common interrogative adverbs: *why, when, where, how, whence, whither*.

These words may introduce direct questions; as,

1. *When* did he come?
2. *Why* did you take the book?
3. *Where* did you leave it?

They may introduce indirect questions; as,

1. I know *when* he came.
2. He asked *why* you took the book.
3. I remember *where* you left it.

REMARK.—Interrogative adverbs, like other interrogative words, stand at the beginning of the question.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

269. The conjunctive adverb is never found in the simple sentence because it always joins a dependent clause, of which it is a part, to some word in the sentence; as,

The man will go *when* the train arrives.

In this sentence *when* has two uses; first, as an adverb of time it limits the verb "arrives"; second, as a conjunction it connects the clause, "when the train arrives," to the verb "will go." *When* does not limit "will go," it limits only "arrives," the verb in its own clause. The entire clause, "when the train arrives," limits "will go." In complex sentences, the connective is always a part of the dependent clause, and when the connective has another use besides to connect, its construction will be found in the clause of which it forms a part.

270. A conjunctive adverb is usually equivalent to two prepositional phrases; as,

1. Come *when* I call you—Come *at the time at which* I call you.
2. The tree lies *where* it fell—The tree lies *in the place in which* it fell.
3. This is the house *where* I live—This is the house *in which* I live.

In the last sentence, *where* is equivalent to but one phrase, *in which*. When the conjunctive adverb is equivalent to but one phrase it may be called a **relative adverb**, because its use resembles that of a relative pronoun.

Not many words are used as conjunctive adverbs: The most common are *when*, *where*, *whenever*, *wherever*, *while*, and *as*.

RESPONSIVE ADVERBS.

271. The responsives were originally adverbs and are still classed with them. They may be parsed as adverbs used independently, or simply as responsives.

The responsives are divided into two classes:

1. Of affirmation; as, *yes*, *yea*, *aye*.
2. Of negation; as, *no*, *nay*.

CLASSES ON BASIS OF IDEA EXPRESSED.

272. Classed on the basis of idea expressed, adverbs may be divided into adverbs of:

1. Time; as, They are coming *now*.
2. Place; as, You may stand *there*.
3. Manner; as, He fought *bravely*.
4. Degree; as, John is a *very* brave boy.
5. Cause, or Reason; as, *Why* will ye die?
6. Number; as James has read the book *twice*.
7. Order; as, James read the book *first*.
8. Addition; as, John may go *also*.
9. Direction; as, The balloon went *up*.
10. Certainty; as, *Verily* I say unto you.
11. Affirmation; as, *Yes* you are going.
12. Negation; as, He will *not* come.
13. Condition; as, *However*, yet they me despise.—Spenser.
14. Doubt; as, *Perhaps* he will go.

273. Modal Adverbs.—An adverb that affects the meaning of the verb like a change of its mode, is called a **modal adverb**. By some authors modal adverbs are called **adverbs of assertion** because they always attach to the *assertive part* of the predicate, while other adverbs limit the *attributive part*.

Modal adverbs are usually divided into four sub-classes:

1. **Affirmative**; as, certainly, indeed, surely, verily, amen.
2. **Negative**; as, not, never.
3. **Potential**; as, possibly, perhaps, probably, maybe.
4. **Causal**; as hence, accordingly, therefore.

274. Position of Modal Adverbs.—Grammatically, modal adverbs attach to the verb, but because they really affect the meaning of the entire statement, their position is much freer than that of other adverbs. Observe the position of the modal adverb, *certainly*, in each of the following sentences:

1. *Certainly* I shall go.
2. I *certainly* shall go.
3. I shall *certainly* go.
4. I shall go *certainly*.

CLASSES ON BASIS OF FORM.

275. As to form adverbs are divided into three classes: **simple**, **flexional**, and **complex**.

1. A **simple adverb** is an adverb which has no distinctive adverbial termination; as, *here, there, too, etc.*

2. A **flexional adverb** is an adverb which has a distinctive adverbial termination; as, *wisely, keenly, bravely, etc.*

3. A **complex adverb** is an idiomatic adverb-phrase whose parts can not easily be construed separately; as,

arm-in-arm	at most	in general
again and again	at once	in short
at random	at worst	in vain
as yet	by and by	now-a-days
at all	by far	now and then
at best	face to face	of course
at large	by all means	of late
at last	for good	of old
at least	forever	on high
at length	ere long	one by one

REMARK.—When the combination does not have the force of a single adverb, the words must be parsed separately. In the sentence, "Then and there was hurrying

to and fro," *then* expresses the idea of time, and *there*, of place; they can not therefore be parsed together. The combination, *to and fro*, expresses the idea of manner, and should be parsed as a complex adverb.

276. Position of Adverbs.—The adverb, like other modifiers, should have that position in the sentence, which adds most to the clearness and elegance of the expression. Generally that position is next the expression modified. Some words may be used either as adjectives or as adverbs, and may therefore be construed with any word by which they stand. Among such words, *only* requires special attention. Explain the meaning of each of the following sentences:

1. Only John has lost his book.
2. John only has lost his book.
3. John has only lost his book.
4. John has lost only his book.
5. John has lost his only book.
6. John has lost his book only.

277. Two Negatives.—Formerly two or more negatives were used to strengthen one another. In the following couplet from Chaucer, three negatives are used where only one would now be used.

That ther *nas* (=was not) *no* man in *no* regioun
That him in song or wisdom might passe.

Two negatives destroy the effect of each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative; as,

1. He can not learn nothing—He can learn something.
2. He is not unkind—He is kind.

To deny a statement, use one negative.

278. Adjective or Adverb.—After an intransitive verb, an adjective should be used to express a quality or condition of the subject; an adverb, to tell the manner of the action expressed by the verb. In the sentence, "She felt awkward at the piano," *awkward* is a predicate adjective limiting the subject "she." In "She felt awkwardly at the piano," *awkwardly* is an adverb expressing the manner in which the *feeling* was done.

EXERCISE XL.

Explain the difference in meaning between :

1. James looks *poor* (*poorly*).
2. They found the way *easy* (*easily*).
3. The clerk appeared *prompt* (*promptly*).
4. The blind man felt *awkward* (*awkwardly*) on the pavement.
5. Cora looks *good* (*well*).
6. The potatoes are boiling *soft* (*softly*).

Select from the parentheses the right word :

7. The girl looks (sad, sadly).
8. James can not walk (further, farther).
9. How (sweet, sweetly) those violets smell!
10. Deal (gentle, gently) with the erring one.
11. The door closes (easy, easily).
12. The birds are singing (beautiful, beautifully).
13. The girl looks (beautiful, beautifully) in her new dress.
14. The sun shines (bright, brightly).
15. She speaks (distinct, distinctly).
16. It is a (real, really) warm day.
17. I am (tolerable, tolerably) well.
18. The pupil is (tolerable, tolerably).
19. The child was treated (ill, illy).
20. He acted (awkward, awkwardly) in her presence.
21. The wind blows (cold, coldly) through the window.
22. He looked (strange, strangely) to me.
23. He looked (strange, strangely) at me.
24. He is planing the board (smooth, smoothly).

279. Substitutes for Adverbs.—The adverbial function may be performed by :

1. A **noun**; as, The man is *stone* deaf; Jane walked *a mile*.
2. An **adjective**; as, "The swallow sings *sweet* from her nest on the wall."

NOTE.—This is allowable in poetry.

3. An **infinitive**; as, He came *to study*.
4. A **preposition**; as, He went *by*.
5. A **prepositional phrase**; as, He went *by the house*.
6. A **clause**; as, He was not so careful *as he should have been*.

NOTE.—In the sentence, "*The* more I see of him *the* better I like him," *the* is not the article, but an adverb of degree (182, note).

280. **Expletive Use.**—Some adverbs are used to change the form of an expression, or simply to fill it out. In such a use the adverb becomes a mere expletive; as,

1. "*There* were giants in those days."
2. *Well*, are you the one who did it?
3. *Now*, do not act so.
4. If her chill heart I can not move,
 Why, I'll enjoy the very love.—Cowley.

NOTE.—The expletive can always be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING ADVERBS.

281. In parsing an adverb, give:

1. Its class, (a) as to use, (b) as to idea expressed.
2. Its degree, if it has degree.
3. Its construction—what it limits.

MODELS.

1. The man walks *fast*.
2. *Where* did you go *when* I called you?
 (1) *Fast* is a pure adverb of manner, positive degree, limiting the verb "walks."
 (2) *Where* is an interrogative adverb of place, limiting the verb "did go."
 (3) *When* is a conjunctive adverb of time. It limits the verb "called" and connects the clause, "when I called you" with the verb "did go."

EXERCISE XLI.

Parse the adverbs in the following sentences:

1. A thousand hearts beat happily.
2. He left the room at once.
3. When you turn, go directly west.
4. Now the earth is so full that a drop overfills it.
5. We sit in the warm shade and feel right well
 How the sap creeps up and blossoms swell.—Lowell.
6. The world is too much with us.
7. Maybe the amorous count solicits her.
8. I can not recant now.

9. The more a man knows the more he desires to know.
10. Why stand ye here all the day idle?
11. Oh! what a tangled web we weave,
When first we practice to deceive.—Scott.
12. Colder and louder blew the wind.
13. I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
Which he did thrice refuse.—Shakespeare.
14. Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay.—Goldsmith.
15. The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.—Gray.
16. I better know than all
How little I have gained,
How vast the unattained.
17. Till rathe she rose, half-cheated in the thought.—Tennyson.

EXERCISE XLII.

Parse the adverbs and adjectives in the following sentences:

1. When shall we recite?
2. Still waters run deep.
3. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
4. As is the boy so will be the man.
5. How well can you read?
6. How well you can read!
7. How should Mary act? Wisely.
8. How is Mary? Sick.
9. Will you sing for us? Yes.
10. Can you sing in French? No.
11. A season so extremely warm had never before been known.
12. Sleep stole on as sleep will do
When the heart is light and the life is new.—Whittier.
13. This is the place where we stop.
14. When public bodies are to be addressed on momentous occasions, when great interests are at stake and strong passions excited, nothing is valuable in speech further than it is connected with high intellectual and moral endowments.—Webster.
15. Before her queenly womanhood,
How dared our hostess utter
The paltry errand of her need,
To buy her fresh-churned butter?—Whittier.
16. How often, oh, how often
I had wished that the ebbing tide
Would bear me away on its bosom
O'er the ocean wild and wide.—Longfellow.

SUMMARY.

282. Following is an outline of the adverb:

THE ADVERB (261).

- I. Definition (18, 261).
- II. Constructions.—May limit—
 1. A verb.
 2. A verbal.
 3. An adjective.
 4. An adverb.
 5. A preposition.
 6. A prepositional phrase.
 7. A sentence.
- III. Classes on Basis of Use (262).
 1. Pure.
 2. Interrogative.
 3. Conjunctive.
 4. Responsive.
- IV. Classes on Basis of Idea Expressed (272).
 1. Time.
 2. Place.
 3. Manner.
 4. Degree.
 5. Cause, or Reason.
 6. Number.
 7. Order.
 8. Addition.
 9. Direction.
 10. Certainty.
 11. Affirmation.
 12. Negation.
 13. Condition.
 14. Doubt.
- V. Classes on Basis of Form (275).
 1. Simple.
 2. Flexional.
 3. Complex.
- VI. Comparison (265).

REVIEW OF THE ADVERB.

1. Define adverb.
2. In what respect do adverbs and adjectives agree?
3. In what respect do they differ?
4. Write sentences illustrating the seven different constructions of the adverb.
5. Classify the adverb on the basis of use, and define each class.
6. Which class has the property of comparison?

7. Name and illustrate the three methods of comparison.
8. Name and define the classes of adverbs on the basis of idea expressed.
9. What are modal adverbs? Illustrate.
10. What are responsives? Why are they called adverbs?
11. What does the word expletive mean? Illustrate the expletive use of the adverb.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE PREPOSITION.

283. It has been stated already (19) that a preposition is a relational word which expresses the relation between ideas of unequal rank. The word expressing the idea higher in rank is called the **antecedent term of relation**. The expression representing the idea subordinate in rank is called the **subsequent term of relation**. The preposition requires the subsequent term of relation (noun or pronoun) to be in the objective case, therefore the subsequent term is usually called the **object of the preposition**. The preposition, as the name implies, is usually placed before its object; as,

The book is *on* the table.

Sometimes, however, it is placed after its object; as,

1. *What* is he looking *at*?
2. Rather bear those ills we have
Than fly to others *that* we know not *of*.—Shakespeare.
3. What *god* doth the wizard pray *to*?—Hawthorne.

THE OBJECT.

284. The **object** of a preposition is usually a noun or a pronoun; but it may be any word or group of words used substantively; as,

1. Noun; as, He walked to the *house*.
2. Pronoun; as, The work was done by *him*.
3. Adverb; as, I can see from *here*.
4. Adjective; as, He labors in *vain*.
5. Verbal; as,
 - (a) He has nothing to do but *to study*.
 - (b) By *working* faithfully, he will succeed.

6. Prepositional phrase; as, The dog came from *under the house*.

7. Clause; as, Much has been said about *who wrote the first book*.

NOTE 1.—In (6) it is better to regard “from under” as a *compound preposition*. The relation-idea is composed of two parts—the idea of *place* and the idea of *separation*—therefore it necessarily takes two words to express the relation between the *coming* and the *house*.

NOTE. 2.—The words *before*, *after*, *ere*, *till*, *until*, and *since*, are variously classed as *conjunctions*, *conjunctive adverbs*, and *prepositions*.

These words, when they introduce subordinate clauses, are prepositions. Their function is to show *relation of time*. When *since* introduces a clause of reason, it is a conjunction, but when it introduces a clause of time, it is a preposition. In the following sentences, tell the use of the italicized words:

1. They left *before* John arrived.
2. They left *before* John's arrival.
3. We have been very lonely *since* she died.
4. We have been very lonely *since* her death.
5. No one ever saw the man *after* he departed.
6. No one ever saw the man *after* his departure.

THE ANTECEDENT.

285. The **antecedent term of relation** is the word which the prepositional phrase limits. It may be any substantive or attributive word; as,

1. Noun; as, He has a *flock of sheep*.
2. Pronoun; as, *Who of us* can see into the future?
3. Adjective; as, The boy is *good to* his mother.
4. Verb; as, Cora *walked to* the river.
5. Verbal; as,
 - (a) It is pleasant *to walk in* the shade.
 - (b) You can earn money by *working with* your hands.
6. Adverb; as, That horse travels too *swiftly for* my purpose.
7. Interjection; as, *Alas for* maiden, *alas for* judge.—Whittier.

CLASSES ON BASIS OF FORM.

286. According to form, prepositions are divided into three classes: **simple**, **compound**, and **complex**.

(1) A **simple preposition** is a preposition consisting of a single word; as,

a	before	except	save
aboard	behind	ere	till
about	below	from	to
above	beneath	in	toward
across	beside	into	towards
after	besides	like	under
against	between	of	underneath
among	betwixt	off	until
amongst	beyond	on	unto
around	but	opposite	up
as	by	over	upon
astride	concerning	past	with
at	despite	round	without
athwart	during	since	etc.

(2) A **compound preposition** is a preposition made up of two simple prepositions; as,

aboard of	from between	from under
as for	from among	from off
as to	from amongst	out of
but for	from behind	etc.

(3) A **complex preposition** is any combination of different parts of speech used as a single preposition; as,

according to	with respect to	in the relation of
contrary to	in place of	in the character of
devoid of	in respect to	to the extent of
in consideration of	on account of	regardless of
instead of	in spite of	etc.

NOTE.—Many other expressions not given above, are used to express relation, and are therefore prepositions. Many of the foregoing compound and complex prepositions are capable of a closer analysis; and in many instances, it is better to parse each word separately.

CLASSES ON BASIS OF IDEA EXPRESSED.

287. Prepositions express such a variety of relations that they can not easily be classified according to the idea expressed. However, the most common relations expressed by prepositions are those of—

1. Time; as, He left *after* breakfast.
2. Place; as, The book *on* the desk is new.
3. Cause; as, We are thankful *for* small favors.
4. Purpose; as, He went *for* the horse.
5. Agent; as, He was arrested *by* the officer.
6. Instrument; as, He cut the grass *with* a scythe.
7. Means; as, The book was lost *through* carelessness.
8. Possession; as, This is the farm *of* my brother.
9. Kind; as, He has a flock *of* sheep.
10. Subject; as, The love *of* a mother is holy.
11. Object; as, The love *of* money is the root of all evil.
12. Accompaniment; as, He walked *with* his friend.
13. Division; as, They lost some *of* the money.
14. Reference; as, Have you never heard *of* him?
15. Occupation; as, He *as* a lawyer is successful.
16. Direction; as, It climbed *up* the tree.
17. Identity; as, This is the city *of* Austin.
18. Similarity; as, John is *like* his father.
19. Separation; as, He came *from* Denton.
20. Arrival; as, He came *to* New York.

NOTE.—It will be observed that the same preposition may express a variety of relations; also, that the same relation may be expressed by different prepositions. Care must be exercised to use the preposition that will most clearly express the relation intended.

EXERCISE XLIII.

In each of the following sentences, from the words enclosed in the marks of parenthesis, select the correct one:

1. The man lives (at, on, in) a farm.
2. He covered the fire (with, by) the ashes.
3. The man was killed (with, by) lightning.
4. The poor man is in need (of, for) money.
5. Put money (in, into) thy purse.
6. He was thrown (in, into) the water.

7. He walked (in, into) the house.
8. Is your mother (at, to) home?
9. He was abusing (of me, me).
10. I long (for, after) cool weather.
11. She is impatient (with, at) his conduct.
12. The teacher has sympathy (for, with) the child.
13. Jane rejoices (with, at, in) her friend (with, at, in) her success.
14. He was seized (by, with) the officer.
15. Mattie was disappointed (in, of) her trip to the city.
16. The train will arrive (within, inside of) two hours.
17. She will write (him, to him) to-morrow.
18. The Civil War was (between, among) the states.
19. He divided the money (between, among) the two boys.
20. He differs (with, from) me on that question.
21. He sits (besides, beside) the wall.
22. He has no friend (besides, beside) James.
23. Keep (off, off of) the grass.
24. Keep (off, off of) the dog.
25. Keep (out, out of) the rain.

AGREEMENT OF PREPOSITIONS.

288. No fixed rule can be given for the use of prepositions, but when a prepositional phrase limits a derivative word, the preposition and the prefix of the derivative word should, generally, agree in meaning; as,

ab-sent from	de-fend from danger
ab-solve from	dif-ferent from
ab-stract from	dis-tinguish from
ac-cede to	em-bark in a business
ad-apt to	e-rase from
ad-journ to a place	ex-hale from
ad-mission to, into	ex-pel from
at-tend to	ex-tract from
com-ply with	in-dulge in
con-fer with a person	in-clude in
con-nect with	im-pose on
con-verse with a person	in-quire into
con-tend with	pro-vide for
de-bar from entrance	sym-pathize with

NOTE.—Other prepositions are used with some of the foregoing words; as, connect *with* an equal, but *to* a superior; provide *for* anything *with* money, etc.

OBSERVATIONS.

289. *A* is a preposition in such expressions as, They went *a* hunting; She has gone *a* riding. (183, 7, note 2.)

For is used to introduce infinitive phrases; as, For him to run would be cowardly=That he should run would be cowardly. *For* and *that* are expletives here.

Save and *except* were formerly verbs in the imperative mode, but have now come to express merely relation and are, therefore, prepositions.

290. Sometimes the preposition is so closely related to the verb that it may be considered a part of the verb; as,

1. She *laughed at* him.
2. They *wondered at* his zeal.
3. The sheriff *took possession of* the house.

The nature of these prepositions may be shown by changing the verb to the passive voice:

1. He *was laughed at* by her.
2. His zeal *was wondered at* by them.
3. The house *was taken possession of* by the sheriff.

We can substitute a single word for each of the italicized expressions with little or no change in the meaning; as,

1. She *ridiculed* him.
2. They *admired* his zeal.
3. The sheriff *occupied* or *seized* the house.

291. The preposition becomes an adverb when the object is omitted; as,

1. He rode *by*.
2. When are you coming *over*?
3. Come *in*.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING PREPOSITIONS.

292. In parsing a preposition, give:

1. Its classification as to form.
2. Its classification as to idea expressed.
3. Its object and antecedent.

MODELS.

1. The love *of* the mother kept her son *from* prison.

2. The man *by* the window came *up* the street.

(1) *Of* is a simple preposition, showing subjective relation between the object expressed by the noun "mother" and the act represented by the noun "love."

(2) *From* is a simple preposition, showing relation of separation between the object expressed by the noun "prison" and the action expressed by the verb "kept."

(3.) *By* is a simple preposition, showing relation of place between the object expressed by the noun "window" and the object expressed by the noun "man."

(4) *Up* is a simple preposition, showing relation of direction between the object expressed by the noun "street" and the action expressed by the verb "came."

EXERCISE XLIV.

Parse the prepositions in the following sentences:

1. Richard was standing *by* the window.
2. Thus they drifted *from* snow-clad ranges *to* burning plain.—H. H. Bancroft.
3. It was *from* no fault of Noah's.—Hale.
4. He visited the fair City *of* Mexico.
5. The Turk lay dreaming *of* the hour.—Halleck.
6. I think that one abstains *from* writing *on* the immortality *of* the soul.—Emerson.
7. Come *to* the bridal chamber, Death.—Halleck.
8. With my crossbow I shot the albatross.—Coleridge.
9. I left *before* she came.
10. You have changed *since* I saw you.
11. *From* peak *to* peak, the rattling crags among,
Leaps the live thunder.—Byron.
12. He came *from* behind the tree.
13. The little bird sits *at* his door *in* the sun.—Lowell.
14. Great turtles came *up* out *of* the water, and crawled *along* *on* a sandy place.—M. Thompson.
15. We ne'er can reach the inward man,
Or inward woman, *from* without.
16. Other ways exist *besides* through me.
17. Till then, *in* blood *by* noble Percy lie.
18. Ye know not what manner *of* spirit ye are *of*.
19. *In* (18) *of* is a preposition.
20. And every shepherd tells his tale
Under the hawthorn *in* the dale.
21. The air is cut away *before*,
And closes *from* behind.—Coleridge.

22. God of our fathers, known of old,
 Lord of the far-flung battle line,
 Beneath whose awful hand we hold
 Dominion over palm and pine,
 Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
 Lest we forget—lest we forget.—Kipling.

SUMMARY.

293. Following is an outline of the preposition:

THE PRÉPOSITION (283).

I. Definition (19).

II. Terms of Relation.

1. The Object May Be: (284).

- (1) A Noun.
- (2) A Pronoun.
- (3) An Adverb.
- (4) An Adjective.
- (5) A Verbal.
- (6) A Prepositional Phrase.
- (7) A Clause.

2. The Antecedent May Be: (285).

- (1) A Noun.
- (2) A Pronoun.
- (3) An Adjective.
- (4) A Verb.
- (5) A Verbal.
- (6) An Adverb.
- (7) An Interjection.

III. Classes on Basis of Form (286).

1. Simple.
2. Compound.
3. Complex.

IV. Classes on Basis of Idea Expressed (287).

1. Time.
2. Place.
3. Cause.
4. Purpose.
5. Agent.
6. Instrument.
7. Means.
8. Possession.
9. Kind.
10. Subject.
11. Object.
12. Accompaniment.
13. Division.
14. Reference.
15. Direction.
16. Occupation.

17. Identity.
18. Similarity.
19. Separation.
20. Arrival.

REVIEW OF THE PREPOSITION.

1. What is a preposition? What does the word mean?
2. Does a preposition show relation between words or between ideas?
3. What is meant by ideas of unequal rank?
4. Name and define the classes of the preposition as to form; as to idea expressed.
5. What parts of speech may be used as the object of a preposition?
6. In what sense is the subsequent term of relation the object of the preposition?
7. What parts of speech may be the antecedent term or relation?
8. Write a sentence in which a preposition is used as an expletive.
9. Write a sentence in which a preposition is used as an adverb.
10. Write a sentence in which a preposition is used as a part of the verb.

CHAPTER IX.

THE CONJUNCTION.

294. It has already been stated (19) that a conjunction is a relational word which expresses the relation between ideas of equal rank or between thoughts. The thoughts may be equal or unequal in rank. Grammatically, as the name implies (*con+jungere*=to join together) conjunctions connect sentences, or parts of sentences having the same construction. Observe the use of each italicized conjunction in the following sentences:

1. Smith *and* Wilcox own a store.
2. Our government was established by the people *and* for the people.
3. Dave went to town *but* Mattie remained at home.
4. Ervin will bring in the wood *if* Cleveland will cut it.

In (1) *and* connects "Smith" and "Wilcox," two nouns in the same construction. The verb *own* is plural because it has two subjects taken together.

In (2) *and* connects two phrases, "by the people" and "for the people." These phrases have the same construction because they stand in the same relation to the verb "was established."

When two parts of a sentence have the same construction, they are of equal rank. When one part of a sentence is a modifier of another part, the two parts are unequal in rank. The modifier is subordinate to the part modified.

In (3) *but* connects two sentences of equal rank because neither sentence is a modifier of the other, or of any part of the other.

In (4) *if* connects two sentences unequal in rank because one is a modifier of the other. The second states the condition under which the first will be true.

295. Prepositions and conjunctions compared:

1. Both connect words.
2. Both express relation between ideas.
3. Conjunctions connect parts of a sentence that have the same construction, while prepositions connect parts that have not the same construction.
4. Conjunctions connect sentences equal or unequal in rank, while prepositions can not connect sentences of equal rank, but may introduce subordinate sentences.
5. Conjunctions have no governing power, while prepositions govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case.

CLASSES ON BASIS OF RANK.

296. Conjunctions are divided according to the rank of the parts connected into two classes: **co-ordinate** and **subordinate**.

1. A **co-ordinate conjunction** is a conjunction which connects sentences and parts of sentences equal in rank.
2. A **subordinate conjunction** is a conjunction which connects sentences unequal in rank.

CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

297. According to the relation which the connected parts bear to each other, co-ordinate conjunctions may be divided into the following classes:

1. **Copulative Conjunctions.**
2. **Alternative Conjunctions.**
3. **Adversative Conjunctions.**
4. **Illative Conjunctions.**

298. A **copulative conjunction** denotes union of ideas or of thoughts; as,

1. The book *and* the pencil are on the desk.
2. George is chairman *and* Lucy is secretary.

The word *copulative* is from the Latin *copulare*, to couple. **And** is the type of this class, and may be put in the place of any other copulative conjunction without greatly changing the meaning of the sentence. Other words are sometimes used as copulative conjunctions; as, *also*, *besides*, *likewise*, *moreover*, *as well as*, *furthermore*.

299. An **alternative conjunction** denotes separation of ideas, or of thoughts; as,

1. John *or* Henry may go (not both).
2. You may have the book *or* John may have it.

The type of this class of conjunctions is **or**. Other alternatives are, *either-or*, *nor*, *neither-nor*, *or-or*, *nor-nor*, *else*. Because these words usually denote a logical separation, they are sometimes called **disjunctive conjunctions**.

Two or more singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor* require a singular verb because each subject is considered separately with the verb; as,

He or she *was* in the wrong=He was in the wrong, or she was in the wrong.

300. An **adversative conjunction** denotes opposition of thoughts; as,

John studies *but* he does not learn.

The statement, "John studies," would cause one to think *that he learns*, but the conjunction connects a statement adverse or opposite in meaning.

The typical adversative conjunction is **but**. Other words used as adversatives are, *yet, still, only, nevertheless, however, notwithstanding*.

301. An **illative conjunction** denotes inference, or conclusion; as, You work faithfully, *therefore* you will succeed.

The type of this class is **therefore**, but other words are used to introduce conclusions and inferences from foregoing statements; as, *hence, consequently, accordingly, thus, so, for*.

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

302. Subordinate conjunctions may be divided into the following classes:

1. Conditional Conjunctions.
2. Concessive Conjunctions.
3. Consecutive Conjunctions.
4. Final Conjunctions.
5. Comparative Conjunctions.
6. Causal Conjunctions.
7. Introductory Conjunctions.

303. A **conditional conjunction** introduces a statement which expresses a condition; as,

John will do the work *if* he is able.

If is the type of this class, but other words are used to introduce conditional statements; as, *unless, except, provided, in case, provided that*.

304. A **concessive conjunction** introduces a statement which expresses a concession or admission; as,

Although he failed twice, he tried again and succeeded.

The words most commonly used to introduce concessive statements are, *although, though, and albeit*.

305. A **consecutive conjunction** introduces a statement which expresses result, or what follows; as,

1. It was so cold *that* the mercury froze.
2. So many thoughts moved to and fro,
That vain it were her eyes to close.—Coleridge.

The most common conjunctions of this class are *that* and *so that*.

306. A **final conjunction** introduces a statement expressing purpose; as,

1. Take heed *lest* ye fall.
2. We wish for a thousand heads, a thousand bodies, *that* we might celebrate its immense beauty.—Emerson.

The words commonly used to introduce statements expressing purpose are, *that*, *so that*, *lest*, *in order that*.

307. A **comparative conjunction** denotes comparison and introduces a statement which has the value of an adverb of degree; as,

Mary is taller *than* her sister [is tall].

A comparison always involves a repetition, since the quality under consideration must be asserted of both objects compared. Since the predicate of the dependent clause is but a repetition of the predicate of the independent clause, it is usually omitted. In analysis, the predicate must be restored.

Than is the type of this class.

308. A **causal conjunction** introduces a statement expressing cause or reason; as,

1. He was angry *because* the man had deceived him.
2. I will go now *since* you have come.

Conjunctions of this class are, *because*, *since*, *as*, *whereas*.

309. An **introductory conjunction** introduces a substantive clause; as,

1. We know *that* Columbus was an Italian.
2. Pardon my asking *if* you like to read.
3. Let us see *whether* the greatest, the wisest, the purest hearted of all ages, are agreed in any wise on this point.—Ruskin.

These introductory words are not true conjunctions, for they are not connectives. A substantive clause used as subject or object needs no connective. These introductory words are nothing more than expletives.

CLASSES ON BASIS OF FORM.

310. On basis of form conjunctions may be divided into three classes: **simple**, **correlative**, and **phrasal**.

1. A **simple conjunction** is a conjunction which consists of a single word; as, *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, *etc.*

2. A **correlative conjunction** is a conjunction made up of co-related words which go in pairs; as, *either-or*, *or-or*, *neither-nor*, *nor-nor*, *both-and*, *etc.*

NOTE.—It is convenient and customary to parse such expressions as *either-or*, *neither-nor*, *etc.*, as correlative conjunctions, but the words *either* and *neither* are merely expletives, having no use in the sentence but to introduce the parts connected by *or* and *nor*.

3. A **phrasal conjunction** is a conjunction consisting of a phrase; as, *as if*, *as though*, *as well as*, *inasmuch as*, *etc.*

NOTE.—Sometimes it is better not to consider the phrase as a single conjunction. There is an ellipsis in the following sentence:

"He looks *as if* he were a thief."

If analyzed, the sentence would read:

"He looks *as* (he would look) *if* he were a thief."

In the sentence, "He works *as well as* plays," if the meaning is, He works *and* plays, *as well as* should be parsed together. But if it mean that he does his work in the same manner as he does his playing, the words in *as well as* should be parsed separately.

REMARKS ON THE CONJUNCTION.

311. When a series of words in the same construction is used, the conjunction is placed only before the last word in the series; as, Books, chairs, desks, and tables are in the room.

NOTE.—The comma marks the omission of the conjunction.

Neither and *either* should always introduce parts that are connected by the corresponding *nor* and *or*; as, Neither he nor his father knew the man; Either James

or Henry is mistaken. *Charles neither studies his grammar lesson nor his arithmetic lesson*, should be, *Charles studies neither his grammar lesson nor his arithmetic lesson*.

When *and* connects two or more singular subjects that refer to the same object, or that are thought of as a unit, the verb must be singular; as,

1. The saint, the father, and the husband *prays*.—Burns.
2. Bread and water *is* a plain diet.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING CONJUNCTIONS.

312. In parsing a conjunction, state:

1. Its classification.
2. The parts connected.

NOTE.—In studying the conjunction, two questions should be answered with care: (1) What are the parts connected by the conjunction? (2) Are the connected parts equal or unequal in rank?

MODELS.

1. John *and* James are carrying a sack.
 2. The book is *either* on the desk *or* in the chair.
 3. The girl studies *as well as* plays.
 4. You may take the book, *but* I do not like to lend it.
 5. The boy tore his book *because* he was angry.
- (1) *And*, conj., co-or., cop., simple, and connects two nouns, "John" and "James."
- (2) *Either-or*, conj., co-or., alt., correl., and connects two phrases, "on the desk" and "in the chair."
- (3) *As well as*, conj., co-or., cop., phrasal, and connects two verbs, "studies" and "plays."
- (4) *But*, conj., co-or., adverb., simple, and connects "but I do not like to lend it" with "you may take the book."
- (5) *Because*, conj., subor., causal, simple, and connects "because he was angry" to "tore."

EXERCISE XLV.

In the following sentences, parse the conjunctions, prepositions, and adverbs:

1. We all must work *or* starve.
2. John will work *if* the man will pay him.

3. Though he slay me, yet will I trust him.
 4. Not truth, but falsehood, fears the open day.
 5. Come back as soon as you can.
 6. Her decision was neither just nor wise.
 7. Study your lessons, otherwise you will fail.
 8. I like him, only I do not fully trust him.
 9. You have no money, furthermore you are in debt.
 10. Men must work and women must weep,
'Though storms be sudden and waters deep.—Kingsley.
 11. For none made sweeter melody
Than did the poor blind boy.—Wordsworth.
 12. If thou go, see that thou offend not.
 13. Men must be taught as if you taught them not.
 14. Be silent that you may hear.
 15. You should not go unless you are invited.
 16. Word came that the king had escaped.
 17. I care not whether he goes or stays.
 18. Open the gate wide so that he can drive through.
 19. A holiday was given in order that the children might
see the parade.
 20. It matters not how he looks, so he can do the work.
 21. I looked to heaven and tried to pray;
But or ever a prayer had gusht,
A wicked whisper came, and made
My heart as dry as dust.—Coleridge.
 22. An if your wife be not a mad-woman
And know how well I have deserved this ring,
She would not hold out enemy forever
For giving it to me.—Shakespeare.
 23. God made him, and therefore let him pass for a man.
 24. The boat came closer to the ship,
But I nor spake nor stirred.—Coleridge.
 25. She brought to him her beauty and truth,
But and broad earldoms three,
And he made her queen of the broader lands
He held of his lute in fee.—Lowell.
 26. Nay, an thou dalliest, then I am thy foe.—B. Jonson.
 27. But why drives on that ship so fast,
Without or wave or wind?—Coleridge.
 28. Mark how the blood of Caesar followed it,
As rushing out of doors, to be resolved
If Brutus so unkindly knock'd or no.—Shakespeare.
- NOTE.—In (21) *or ever—before*. In (22) *an if—if*. In (26) *an—if*. In (28) *as—as if*.

Beside *and* from Old English, there came into the language in Middle English, the Norse word *and*, "if." This remained in early Modern English in the form *and* (an), but is now no longer used.—O. F. Emerson.

SUMMARY.

313. Following is an outline of the conjunction:

THE CONJUNCTION (294).

- I. Definition (19).
- II. Classes on Basis of Rank (296).
 1. Co-ordinate (297).
 - (1) Copulative, denoting union (298).
 - (2) Alternative, denoting separation (299).
 - (3) Adversative, denoting opposition (300).
 - (4) Illative, denoting inference (301).
 2. Subordinate (302).
 - (1) Conditional, denoting condition (303).
 - (2) Concessive, denoting concession (304).
 - (3) Consecutive, denoting result (305).
 - (4) Final, denoting purpose (306).
 - (5) Comparative, denoting comparison (307).
 - (6) Causal, denoting cause or reason (308).
 - (7) Introductory, denoting a noun-use (309).
- III. Classes on Basis of Form (310).
 1. Simple; as, *but*.
 2. Correlative; as, *both-and*.
 3. Phrasal; as, *in order that*.

REVIEW OF THE CONJUNCTION.

1. What is a conjunction?
2. In what respect do conjunctions and prepositions agree?
3. In what respect do they differ?
4. Make sentences in which each of the following words shall be used (1) as a conjunction, (2) as a preposition: *but*, *for*, *besides*, *since*.
5. Make a list of conjunctions that are never used as prepositions or adverbs.
6. Classify the conjunction on the basis of rank and define each class.
7. What is meant by "parts of equal rank"?
8. Name and define the classes of the co-ordinate conjunction.
9. In what two ways do co-ordinate and subordinate conjunctions differ?
10. Mention some of the different relations denoted by subordinate conjunctions, and give illustrations.
11. What are correlative conjunctions? Give examples.
12. Mention phrases that are used as conjunctions.

CHAPTER X.

THE INTERJECTION.

314. An interjection (20) is a word used to express emotion or feeling, but it represents no definite idea. It has no grammatical connection with the sentence, and is therefore not a "part of speech." It is customary, however, and convenient to speak of the interjection as a part of speech. The word literally means *thrown in between*. When we are concerned only with the intellect and wish to express simply ideas and thoughts we do not need interjections, and should not use them. But there is another phase of mental activity known as the *feelings*, which constitutes a very important part of mental life. All joys and sorrows are experienced in the feelings. When we wish to express our feelings, the interjection is a very convenient form of speech.

315. The importance of the interjection as a form of expression has been set forth by Fowler in the following words:

"The fact that interjections express the multiplied emotions of the human mind, and lend their aid where all other language fails in this respect; that they are the only medium of intercourse between man and the brute creation, or of animals with each other; and that they are a natural universal language, is sufficient to exhibit their importance in a philosophic view. There can be no doubt that interjections, rightly used, contribute much to render language an exact picture of the human mind."

CLASSES ON BASIS OF FEELING EXPRESSED.

316. No very satisfactory classification of the interjection can be made on account of the fact that the same interjection may express a variety of feelings according to the way in which it is uttered. Thus *ah!* may express joy, pain, surprise, or disgust. Also the same

feeling may be expressed by a number of different interjections. Sorrow may be expressed by *oh, ah, alas, etc.*

The following classification is only suggestive:

1. Joy or surprise: *oh! ah! hey! hurrah!*
2. Pain or suffering: *ah! oh! alas! well-a-day!*
3. Disapproval: *fie! fudge! chew!*
4. Call for attention: *ho! hollo! hem! hark!*
5. Call for silence: *hush! hist! st! mum!*
6. Imitation of sounds: *tick-tock! bang! chug!*
7. Etc., etc.

NOTE 1.—In writing, the exclamation point usually follows the interjection.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes interjections govern the case of substantives; as, *Ah me! dear me!* These interjections require the pronoun to be in the objective case. The Latin has *Heu me miserum!*—Ah me unhappy! *O fallacem spem!*—O deceptive hope!

EXERCISE XLVI.

Point out the interjections in the following sentences, and tell what each expresses:

1. Alas! I am undone.
2. O joy! that in our embers
Is something that doth live.—Wordsworth.
3. Ah! what a weary race my feet have run.—Warton.
4. Hush! you will wake the baby.
5. Ha! feel ye not your fingers thrill?
6. Bah! the mate for beauty
Should be a man and not a money-chest!—Bulwer.
7. Fie, fie! you counterfeit, you puppet, you.—Shakespeare.
8. Alas! I have nor hope nor health—Shelley.
9. Hark! listen to the music.
10. "Hollo! Gluck, my boy," said the pot again.
11. "Oh!" cried poor Gluck, running to look up the chimney after him; "oh dear, dear, dear me! My mug! my mug! my mug!"—Ruskin.
12. Ah! well-a-day! what evil looks,
Had I from old and young!
Instead of the cross, the Albatross
About my neck was hung.—Coleridge.

SUMMARY.

317. The outline of the interjection.

THE INTERJECTION (314).

I. Definition (20).

II. Classes on Basis of Feeling Expressed (316).

1. Joy or surprise.
2. Pain or suffering.
3. Disapproval.
4. Call for attention.
5. Call for silence.
6. Imitation of sounds.
7. Etc., etc.

REVIEW OF THE INTERJECTION.

1. What is an interjection? What is the literal meaning of the word?
2. What is the usual position of the interjection?
3. Why is it not properly a part of speech?
4. Show that the interjection is a means of communication between man and the brute creation; between animals.
5. Name some of the interjections used in communicating with animals.
6. Name other classes of interjections not given above.

CHAPTER XI.

THE VERBAL.

318. We have already learned (204) that some verb-forms are infinite; i. e., they are not limited by person and number. These forms do not *assert*, but *assume* action, being, or state. They are called **verbals** because they are derived from verbs and retain the following characteristics of verbs:

1. They express action, being, or state.
2. They take adverbial modifiers.
3. They are transitive or intransitive. When transitive, they govern substantives in the objective case. When copulative they are followed by an attribute complement.
4. They frequently have subjects.
5. They have voice,—active and passive.
6. They have tense,—present, past, and perfect.

Verbals do not have the grammatical properties of substantives or of attributive words, but in the sentence, they are used either substantively or attributively.

There are two classes of verbals: **infinitives** and **participles**.

THE INFINITIVE.

319. The **infinitive** is usually defined as the noun-form of the verb, but it has characteristics and uses which render this definition inadequate. Let the pupils, after they have studied this chapter, make a definition of the infinitive.

Each verb has two infinitives: **present infinitive**, and **perfect infinitive**. The following are the infinitives of the verb *see*:

ACTIVE.			PASSIVE.
Simple.		Progressive.	
<i>Pres.</i>	to see	to be seeing	to be seen
<i>Perf.</i>	to have seen	to have been seeing	to have been seen

320. Sign of the Infinitive.—The infinitive generally has before it the word *to*, which, in this use, is called its **sign**. Originally the *to* was a preposition, but in the development of the language, it has lost its prepositional force and has become a mere introductory word. The *to* is a part of the infinitive phrase and it has become so closely attached to the infinitive that it should not be separated from it. The phrase should be treated as a unit. The *to* is usually omitted in verb-phrases and after the verbs, *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *help*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and a few others. Thus,

1. Verb-phrases; as, Will *go*, may *run*, etc.
2. After certain verbs; as,
 - (1) We shall *bid* him *remain*.
 - (2) They *dare* not *go* farther.
 - (3) They *feel* the house *shake*.
 - (4) Whether we look, or whether we listen,
We hear life *murmur*, or see it *glisten*.
 - (5) He will help us *do* the work.
 - (6) Let them *come* on.
 - (7) His father should make him *obey*.
 - (8) Henry is here, so you need not *remain*.

321. Tense Signification.—The time expressed by a verbal depends upon the time expressed by the finite verb in the same sentence.

The time represented by the **present tense** of a verbal is present with reference to the time represented by the finite verb:

1. He desires (now) to study (now).
2. He did desire (yesterday) to study (yesterday).
3. He will desire (to-morrow) to study (to-morrow).
4. He leaves (now) weeping (now).
5. He left (yesterday) weeping (yesterday).
6. He will leave (to-morrow) weeping (to-morrow).

The time represented by the **perfect tense** of a verbal is previous to the time represented by the finite verb:

1. He believes (now) you to have misunderstood him (yesterday).
2. He believed (yesterday) you to have misunderstood him (the day before).
3. Having finished his work (yesterday), he leaves (to-day).
4. Having finished his work (the day before), he left (yesterday).

USES OF THE INFINITIVE.

322. The infinitive is commonly used as a noun or as an adverb of purpose, but it has other uses which require careful study. The infinitive is used:

1. To combine with the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will* to form the future tense; as,
 - (1) We *shall* see you again.
 - (2) The sun *will* rise at six o'clock to-morrow.
2. To combine with the auxiliary verbs *do* and *did* to make up the interrogative, negative, and emphatic forms; as,
 - (1) *Did* you hear the music?
 - (2) They *do* not waste their time.
 - (3) The children *do* study their lessons.
3. To combine with the auxiliary verbs *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, etc., to make up the forms of the potential mode; as,
 - (1) He *may* go now.
 - (2) The man *could* have done the work.

NOTE.—In the development of the language the infinitives have become principal verbs in such combina-

tions as the phrases above. These phrases express a meaning not made up of the combined original meanings, but a new meaning; so that the constituent elements of such phrases can not properly be treated separately. Each verb-phrase should be parsed as one word.

4. As a noun:

- (1) Subject of a verb or verbal; as,
 - (a) *To deceive* is wrong.
 - (b) He thought *to deceive* to be wrong.
- (2) Attribute complement of a verb or verbal; as,
 - (a) To save is *to earn*.
 - (b) He thought to study to be *to read* the exercise.
- (3) In apposition; as,
 - (a) To shuffle off this mortal coil, *to die*, is dreaded.
 - (b) Delightful task! *to rear* the tender thought, *To teach* the young idea how to shoot.—Thomson.
- (4) Object of a verb or verbal; as,
 - (a) She likes *to sing*.
 - (b) She intends to begin *to study* to-day.
- (5) Object of a preposition; as,
 - (a) She did nothing but *laugh*.
 - (b) He was about *to speak*.
- (6) Independent; as,
 - (a) By exclamation: *To murder!* how terrible!
 - (b) By pleonasm: *To be*, or not *to be*, that is the question.
 - (c) By inscription: "*To rent*" (sign).
 - (d) With a participle: *To study* being impossible, we left the room.

5. As an adjective:

- (1) To limit a noun; as, He has bread *to eat*.
- (2) To limit a pronoun; as, He is *to be punished*.

6. As an adverb:

- (1) To limit a verb or verbal; as,
 - (a) They came *to visit* me.
 - (b) He began to study *to learn* his lesson.
- (2) To limit an adjective; as,
 - (a) He is anxious *to learn*.
 - (b) These apples are good *to eat*.
- (3) To limit an adverb; as,
 - (a) He is large enough *to do* the work.
 - (b) The water is too cold *to drink*.

7. With its subject to form a clausal phrase:

- (1) She desired *him to leave*.
- (2) *For him to deceive us* is wrong.

NOTE.—In (1) "*him to leave*" is the object of "*desired*" and is equivalent to the clause, *that he should leave*. In (2) "*for him to deceive us*" is the subject of "*is wrong*," and is equivalent to the clause, *That he should deceive us*. "*For*" in (2) is equivalent to "*that*" in the clause, "*that he should deceive us*." "*For*" and "*that*" are introductory words, called expletives. "*For him to deceive us*" and "*him to leave*" are called *clausal phrases*. It is this use that causes some writers to class the infinitive as a *mode* of the verb.

Concerning the subject of the infinitive, see section 110.

THE PARTICIPLE.

323. The **participle** is commonly defined as the adjective-form of the verb. In modern English the participle has characteristics and uses which carry it beyond this definition. The word *participle* comes from the Latin *participare*, to partake, or to share. This verbal is so named because it partakes of the functions of a verb, and of an adjective or of a noun. The six verbal characteristics are mentioned in section 318. Each verb has three participles: **present participle**, **past participle**, and **perfect participle**. The following are the participles of the verb *drive*:

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.
<i>Simple.</i>	<i>Progressive.</i>	
<i>Present.</i> driving	[being driving]	being driven
<i>Past.</i> [driven]	[_____]	driven
<i>Perf.</i> having driven	having been driving	having been driven

324. Signs of the Participles.—The **simple present participle** always ends in *ing*.

The **simple past participle** commonly ends in *en*, *ed*, *d*, or *t*. For the various endings see list of irregular verbs, sections, 218 and 219.

The **simple perfect participle** always has *having* placed before the past participle.

The **progressive participles** have the simple present participle placed after *being* for the *present*, and after *having been* for the *perfect*.

NOTE.—The present progressive participle is rarely used.

The **passive participles** are formed by placing the past participle after *being* for the *present*, and after *having been* for the *perfect*.

The **past passive participle** is the same in form as the simple past *active* participle.

325. Tense Signification.—The names, *present*, *past*, and *perfect*, when applied to verbals, have reference to their *form* rather than to the *time* represented by them. The time expressed by a verbal depends upon the time expressed by the finite verb in the same sentence. (See section 321.)

USES OF THE PARTICIPLE.

326. In addition to its substantive or attributive use, the participle retains the characteristics of the verb from which it is derived.

The participle is used:

1. To combine with the forms of the verb *be* to make up the **progressive forms**; as,

- (1) The child *is playing*.
- (2) The birds *were singing*.

Only the simple *present* participle has this use. (See section 257.)

2. To combine with the forms of the verb *be* to make up the **passive forms**; as,

- (1) The boy *is seen* by his mother.
- (2) The birds *were killed* by the dog.

Only the past *passive* participle has this use. (See section 256.)

Intransitive verbs have no passive participles. They

can not have the *passive voice*, although they sometimes have the *passive form*. The following sentences have the same form:

1. The dog was killed.
2. The dog was gone.

The verb in the first sentence is passive, in the second, active. With passive verbs we may always use the preposition *by* followed by the name of the agent; as,

The dog was killed *by the officer*.

But it would not be proper to say:

The dog was gone *by the officer*.

3. To combine with the forms of the verb *have* to make up the **perfect tenses** in the active voice; as,

- (1) He *has gone*.
- (2) Jane *had seen* the Louvre.

Only the past *active* participle has this use.

NOTE 1.—The perfect tenses are comparatively recent. Before they were used, the idea of a completed action was expressed by the verb *have*, followed by a direct object which was limited by a passive participle; as,

I have the letter written.

Gradually the idea of possession has been dropped; and the participle has changed from the passive to the active signification. *Letter* came to be regarded, not as the object of *have*, but as the object of the verb-phrase *have written*. Now, *all* verbs, whether transitive or intransitive, form their perfect tenses in this way.

- Ex.—(1) I *have written* the letter.
(2) I *have gone* to the city.

NOTE 2.—In the foregoing uses, the participle is the principal word in the verb-phrase. The parts of

such phrases can not properly be parsed separately. The note under section 322 applies to participles as well as to infinitives.

4. As a noun:

- (1) *Playing* tennis is good exercise.
- (2) He boasted of *having met* the president.

The participle may be used in all the noun relations in which the infinitive is used. (See section 322, 4.) When the participle is used as a noun, it is variously named, *participle*, *participial infinitive*, *infinitive*, *infinitive* in *ing*, and *gerund*. Something can be said in favor of each name. The names are stated in the order of their preference.

5. As an adjective:

- (1) In the predicative construction; as,
 - (a) He came *whistling* into the room.
 - (b) We stood *waiting* a long time.
- (2) In the adverbial predicative construction; as,
 - (a) He came *stumbling* along.
 - (b) She came *running* to me.
- (3) In the appositive construction; as,
 - (a) Truth, *crushed* to earth, shall rise again.
 - (b) The horse, *running* away, broke the buggy.
- (4) In the factitive construction; as,
 - (a) They kept him *waiting* outside.
 - (b) The officer had the thief *arrested*.
- (5) In the attributive construction; as,
 - (a) The *running* brook babbles sweetly.
 - (b) The man has a *crippled* horse.

NOTE.—In the attributive construction, the participle loses its verbal nature and becomes a mere descriptive adjective.

6. With its subject to form a clausal phrase; as,

- (1) *His being a teacher* does not excuse him.
- (2) *The man having sold the horse*, we walked.

NOTE.—In (1) "*his being a teacher*" is the subject of "*does excuse*" and is nearly equivalent to the clause,

that he is a teacher. Grammatically "his" limits the phrase "being a teacher," but logically "his" is the subject of "being," and "teacher" is the attribute complement. "His" and "teacher" refer to the same person. In (2) "*the man having sold the horse*" is logically equivalent to the clause *because the man had sold the horse.* Grammatically "*man*" is said to be independent with the participle "*having sold*"; but logically "*man*," naming the doer of the act, is the subject of "*having sold*" and "*horse*" is the object. "*His being a teacher*" and "*the man having sold the horse*" may be called *clausal phrases.*

It is this use of the participle that causes some writers to class it as a *mode* of the verb. It will be observed that the subject of a participle is usually in the possessive case, or in the nominative absolute.

PARTICIPLES BECOME OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.

327. The participle may shade off into any part of speech except a pronoun. Whenever it loses its *double nature* it ceases to be a *participle*.

A participle may become :

1. A mere **noun**, when limited by an adjective; as,
 - (1) William maintains a fair *standing* in society.
 - (2) The *stopping* of the car was unexpected.
2. A mere **adjective**, when used attributively; as,
 - (1) He has a *striking* appearance.
 - (2) An *educated* man can control himself.
3. A mere **verb**, when combined with an auxiliary; as,
 - (1) The horse *is running* away.
 - (2) He *has written* a long letter.
4. A mere **adverb**; as,
 - (1) The water *is boiling* hot.
 - (2) "'Tis strange; 'tis *passing* strange."
5. A mere **conjunction**; as,
 - (1) *Seeing* we could not agree, the discussion was stopped.
 - (2) *Supposing* cotton is selling at eight cents, how many bales will you buy?

NOTE.—*Seeing* equals *because*, and *supposing* equals *if*.

6. A mere preposition; as,
 - (1) "I speak *concerning* Christ and the Church."
 - (2) Nothing was said *touching* that question.
7. A mere interjection; as,
 - (1) *Shocking!* how terrible!
 - (2) *Astonishing!* how strange!

328. Caution.—Unless a word is derived from a verb it can not be a participle. In the expression, "A youth to fortune and to fame unknown," *unknown* is not a participle because there is no verb *unknow* from which it can be derived. A number of expressions become *adjectives* by adding *ed*; as, *barefooted*, *one-armed*, *crooked-nosed*, etc.

It should be kept in mind that a participle is always part *verb* and part *noun* or *adjective*. When it loses its *verbal* nature it usually becomes a mere noun or a mere adjective. When it loses its *noun* or *adjective* nature it usually becomes a mere *verb*.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING VERBALS.

329. In parsing a verbal, give:

1. Its classification—infinitive or participle.
2. Its properties—tense and voice.
3. Its construction in the sentence.

MODELS.

1. The hot-house is a trap *to catch* sun-beams.
2. He came *to visit* me yesterday.
3. James likes *to play* tennis.
4. *Playing* tennis is good exercise.
5. Truth, *crushed* to earth, shall rise again.
 - (1) *To catch* is a verbal, inf., pres., act., used as an adj., limiting the noun "trap."
 - (2) *To visit* is a verbal inf., pres., act., used as an adv., limiting the verb "came."
 - (3) *To play* is a verbal, inf., pres., act., used as a noun, obj. of the verb "likes."
 - (4) *Playing* is a verbal, part., pres., act., used as a noun, subj. of the verb "is."
 - (5) *Crushed* is a verbal, part., past, pass., used as an adj., limiting the noun truth."

EXERCISE XLVII.

Parse the verbals in the following sentences:

1. Learn to labor and to wait.
2. I remember to have seen him somewhere.
3. Mary is to blame for this.
4. She is to be blamed for keeping us waiting so long.
5. We should prepare for the life to come.
6. A silly boy is to be pitied.
7. Marley was dead, to begin with.
8. It is better to give than to receive.
9. I told him to try to learn to be a sailor.
10. The poor child is about to starve to death.
11. He found the man gone and the door locked.
12. Avoid keeping company with depraved people.
13. Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro.
14. The mountain streams went babbling by.
15. When he came to see me, I was ready to go.
16. I'll have thee hanged to feed the crows.
17. There's never a blade nor a leaf too mean
To be some happy creature's palace.—Lowell.
18. The melting Phoebe stood wringing her hands.
19. Buying goods on credit has caused him to fail.
20. I dare do all that may become a man,
Who dares do more is none.—Shakespeare.
21. He can do nothing but refuse.
22. Towering in the public square,
Twenty cubits in the air,
Rose his statue carved in stone.
Then the king, disguised, unknown,
Stood before his sculptured name,
Musing meekly, "What is fame?"
23. What constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement or labored mound,
Thick wall or moated gate;
Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.—
Sir W. Jones.
24. Thus done the tales, to bed they creep,
By whispering winds soon lulled to sleep.—Milton.
25. I am thy father's spirit;
Doomed for a certain term to walk the night,
And for the day confined to fast in fires,
Till the foul crimes done in my days of nature
Are burnt and purged away. But that I am forbid
To tell the secrets of my prison-house,

I could a tale unfold whose lightest word
 Would harrow up thy soul, freeze thy young blood,
 Make thy two eyes, like stars, start from their spheres,
 Thy knotted and combined locks to part
 And each particular hair to stand on end,
 Like quills upon the fretful porpentine:
 But this eternal blazon must not be,
 To ears of flesh and blood.—Shakespeare.

REVIEW OF THE VERBAL.

1. Define verbal. Why is the name appropriate?
2. In the verbal, point out the six characteristics of the verb.
3. Name the two classes of verbals. Define each.
4. What is the sign of the infinitive? When is the sign omitted?
5. How many tense-forms has the infinitive? Explain the signification of each.
6. Name three uses of the infinitive in which it becomes the principal verb of a verb-phrase.
7. Make sentences containing infinitives used:
 - (1) as nouns, (2) as adjectives, (3) as adverbs.
8. Give examples of the infinitive used independently.
9. Write out all the infinitives of the verbs *see*, *go*, *teach*, *learn*, and *swim*.
10. What are the signs of the participle? Why is this verbal so named?
11. How many tense-forms has the participle? Explain the signification of each.
12. Name three uses of the participle in which it ceases to be a participle and becomes a principal verb.
13. Show how a participle may lose its verbal nature and become a mere descriptive adjective, or a mere adverb of degree.
14. Show how a participle may lose its verbal nature and become a mere abstract noun.
15. Use the word *building* (1) as a concrete noun, (2) as an abstract noun, (3) as a participle used as a noun, (4) as a participle used as an adjective, (5) as an adjective, (6) as a principal verb.
16. Write out all the participles of the verbs, *see*, *go*, *read*, *sit*, and *set*.

A SUMMARY OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

I. SUBJECTIVE RELATIONS.

1. A substantive used as the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case (86).
2. A substantive used as the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case, when it is not also the subject of the finite verb on which the infinitive depends (110).
3. A substantive used as the subject of a participle is in the possessive case or the nominative absolute, when it is not construed with any other word in the sentence (326, 6, note).

II. OBJECTIVE RELATIONS.

4. A substantive used as the object of an active transitive verb or verbal is in the objective case (108).
5. A substantive used as the object of a preposition is in the objective case (109).
6. A substantive used adverbially is in the objective case (114).

III. RELATIONS OF IDENTITY.

7. A substantive used as the attribute complement of a verb or verbal is in the same case (nom. or obj.) as the word to which it relates (87).
8. A substantive in apposition is in the same case as the word which it explains (88).

IV. AGREEMENT.

9. A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number (252).
10. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender (117).

V. CONNECTIVES.

11. Conjunctions connect sentences, or parts of sentences having the same construction (294).

12. A preposition brings a substantive into a modifying relation to some other word (283).

13. A relative pronoun joins a clause to its antecedent (137).

14. A conjunctive adverb joins its clause to the word modified by the clause (269).

VI. MODIFIERS.

15. Adjectives limit nouns and pronouns (161).

16. Adverbs usually limit verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (261).

17. A substantive in the possessive case limits another substantive, like an adjective (98).

VII. INDEPENDENT.

18. A substantive used independently is in the nominative case absolute (90).

19. The words, *and*, *that*, *for*, *there*, and a few others, are sometimes used merely as expletives (20).

20. Interjections have no dependent construction (314).

VIII. VERBALS.

21. Verbals have the construction of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs (318).

DIFFERENT USES OF THE SAME WORD.

330. The **use** of a word determines its classification. Some words are freely used in several different relations. Study the following sentences and give a reason for the classification of each word in *italics*.

Above.

1. Noun,—Rain comes from *above*.
2. Adjective,—Read the sentence *above*.
3. Adverb,—The eagle soars *above*.
4. Preposition,—She went *above* me.

All.

1. Noun,—My *all* is lost.
2. Adjective,—*All* men are mortal.
3. Adverb,—The work is *all* wrong.

Any.

1. Adjective,—Has he *any* property?
2. Adverb,—Is your work *any* better?

As.

1. Pronoun,—This is the same *as* I read.
2. Adjective,—Ye shall be *as* gods.
3. Adverb,—You are *as* tall as he.
4. Conjunction,—*As* he was ambitious, I slew him.
5. Preposition,—*As* a teacher he is a success.
6. Expletive,—They regard him *as* innocent.
7. Part of Preposition Phrase,—*As for* me, give me liberty.
8. Part of Conjunction Phrase,—He *as well as* she came.
9. Part of Adverb Phrase,—He has not come *as yet*.

Better.

1. Noun,—She got the *better* of him.
2. Adjective,—He does *better* work now.
3. Verb,—They did not *better* matters.
4. Adverb,—He works *better* now.

Both.

1. Adjective,—*Both* men were present.
2. Correlative Conjunction,—*Both* he and she came.

But.

1. Pronoun,—There is no one *but* knows better.
2. Adjective,—She is *but* a child.
3. Adverb,—He has *but* two children.
4. Preposition,—All *but* him had fled.
5. Conjunction,—He came *but* did not stay.

Else.

1. Adjective,—I met nobody *else*.
2. Adverb,—Where *else* did he go?
3. Conjunction,—I have no tears, *else* I would weep for thee.

Enough.

1. Noun,—*Enough* is as good as a feast.
2. Adjective,—They have *enough* money.
3. Adverb,—The fruit is not ripe *enough*.

Even.

1. Adjective,—He chose an *even* number.
2. Verb,—They will *even* all inequalities.
3. Adverb,—*Even* then he should have said so.

Except.

1. Verb,—They *except* him.
2. Preposition,—They all entered the room *except* him.
3. Conjunction,—*Except* ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.

Far.

1. Adjective,—He came from a *far* country.
2. Adverb,—He did not walk *far*.
3. Part of Preposition Phrase,—He went as *far* as Paris.
As far as is nearly equivalent to *to*.

Fast.

1. Noun,—The *fast* was not long.
2. Adjective,—He has a *fast* horse.
3. Verb,—Some people *fast* in lent.
4. Adverb,—They walk *fast*.

For.

1. Preposition,—Do this *for* me.
2. Conjunction,—He came, *for* he wished to see me.
3. Expletive,—*For* him to remain is impossible.

Full.

1. Noun,—He planted corn in the *full* of the moon.
2. Adjective,—They had a *full* house.
3. Verb,—The moon *will full* to-night.
4. Adverb,—He knew *full* well.

How.

1. Noun,—He knows the *how* and the why of it.
2. Adjective,—*How* is the sick man?
3. Adverb,—*How* did he go?

Ill.

1. Noun,—He has a cure for every *ill*.
2. Adjective,—The child is *ill* to-day.
3. Adverb,—*Ill* fares the land.

Like.

1. Noun,—*Like* begets *like*.
2. Adjective,—*Like* causes produce *like* results.
3. Verb,—They *like* oranges.
4. Adverb,—He ran *like* a deer.
5. Preposition,—He is *like* his father.

Much.

1. Noun,—Where *much* is given *much* is required.
2. Adjective,—He has *much* money.
3. Adverb,—The sick man is *much* better.

No.

1. Noun,—The *noes* have it.
2. Adjective,—He has *no* money.
3. Adverb,—He will stay *no* longer.

Only.

1. Adjective,—The meeting is for men *only*.
2. Adverb,—He caught *only* a few fish.
3. Conjunction,—It will do, *only* it is small.

Since.

1. Adverb,—He has not been here *since*.
2. Preposition,—I have not seen him *since* June.
3. Conjunction,—*Since* you are here, I will go.

So.

1. Adjective,—As is the teacher *so* will be the school.
2. Adverb,—You should not act *so*.
3. Conjunction,—John is here, *so* you may go.

Still.

1. Noun,—In the *still* of night, the peal rang out.
2. Adjective,—*Still* waters run deep.
3. Verb,—He *stills* the noisy sea.
4. Adverb,—He is *still* at work.
5. Conjunction,—It is small, *still* it will do.

That.

1. Pronoun,—This is the man *that* I saw.
2. Adjective,—*That* man is honest.
3. Adverb,—*That* far I hold that the Scriptures teach.
4. Conjunction,—It was so cold *that* the water froze.
5. Expletive,—James said *that* he would go.

The.

1. Adjective,—*The* man is rich.
2. Adverb,—*The* more *the* merrier.

There.

1. Adverb,—He stood *there* a long time.
2. Expletive,—*There* are two pints in one quart.
3. Interjection,—*There!* That will do now.

What.

1. Noun,—In building of chaises, I tell you *what*.
2. Pronoun,—*What* did he say?
3. Adjective,—*What* book have you?
4. Interjection,—*What!* has he escaped?
5. Adverb,—*What* by intrigue and *what* by bribery he accomplished his purpose.

NOTE.—*What*—*partly*.

While.

1. Noun,—They worked well for a *while*.
2. Verb,—They *will while* away their time.
3. Adverb,—You may read *while* you wait.
4. Conjunction,—They are dark, *while* we are light.

Worth.

1. Noun,—What's *worth* in anything
But so much money as 'twill bring?—Butler.
2. Adjective,—The book is *worth* a dollar.
3. Verb,—Woe *worth* the day.—Scott.

Wrong.

1. Noun,—Friend, I do thee no *wrong*.—Matt. xx, 13.
2. Adjective,—You took the *wrong* number.
3. Verb,—You *wrong* me in this.
4. Adverb,—Ten censure *wrong* for one that writes amiss.
—Pope.

SECOND PART.

SYNTAX.

Consider for a moment what grammar is. It is the most elementary part of logic. It is the beginning of the analysis of the thinking process. The principles and rules of grammar are the means by which the forms of language are made to correspond with the universal forms of thought.—John Stuart Mill.

CHAPTER XII.

THE THOUGHT.

331. It has already been stated (4) that a **thought** is the mental product formed by the mind when it asserts a relation between two ideas, or notions. Then, the thought necessarily has three elements, the *two ideas* and the *relation* which the mind sees between the two ideas. This, of course, is the simplest form of thought. The primitive judgment (31 and 195) is of this form. A thought is always the result of comparison. Two ideas are compared and the mind asserts that they agree or disagree. If they agree, they are unified by an affirmation. If they disagree, they are set apart by a denial.

ELEMENTS OF THE THOUGHT.

332. Study the thoughts expressed by the following sentences with reference to the number of ideas in each:

1. Snow is white.
2. Gold and silver are useful metals.
3. Good people are not troublesome.

We are not always conscious of each step that the mind takes in forming a thought, but a close analysis will show three:

- (a) The mind thinks the idea expressed by *snow*.
- (b) The mind thinks the idea expressed by *white*.
- (c) The mind asserts the relation expressed by *is*.

Snow expresses the *subject-idea*, *white* expresses the *attribute-idea*, and *is* expresses the *relation-idea*.

These are called the **essential elements** of a thought because no thought can exist without them. Each element may be *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*. In (1) each element, consisting of a single idea, is simple. In (2) the subject-idea, consisting of the two co-ordinate ideas, *gold* and *silver*, is compound. In (3) the sub-

ject-idea, consisting of the idea *people* limited by the subordinate idea *good*, is complex. Let the pupils classify the other ideas, giving reasons.

Elements used to limit other elements are called **modifying elements**, and they are always subordinate to the elements limited.

CLASSES OF THOUGHTS ON BASIS OF RANK.

333. With reference to their relative importance, study the thoughts expressed by each of the following sentences:

1. He will go when the train arrives.
2. Dogs bark and fishes swim.
3. The boy who came to school and who completed the course of study, has now accepted a good position.

In (1) the leading thought is expressed by "He will go." A less important thought is expressed by "when the train arrives." The first thought does not depend upon any other thought for its meaning. The second thought depends upon the first for its meaning, and is thereby reduced to the level of a modifier. The first thought is principal and independent, the second is subordinate and dependent.

In (2) each thought is independent of the other. When two or more thoughts are independent of each other, they are co-ordinate in rank. The thoughts expressed by "dogs bark" and "fishes swim" are co-ordinate in rank, and each may be said to be a principal thought. Sometimes thoughts are co-ordinate with each other and subordinate to a principal thought, as in (3).

On the basis of rank, thoughts are divided into three classes: **principal**, **subordinate**, and **co-ordinate**.

1. A **principal thought** is a thought which does not depend upon any other thought.
2. A **subordinate thought** is a thought which is a modifier of some part of a principal thought.
3. A **co-ordinate thought** is a thought which is equal in rank to some other thought with which it is connected.

EXERCISE XLVIII.

On the basis of rank, classify all the thoughts expressed by the following sentences:

1. Death is the season that tries our affections.
2. He who gathereth in summer is a wise son.
3. There is nothing new under the sun.
4. Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.
5. Great Nature spoke; observant man obeyed;
Cities were formed; societies were made.
6. 'Tis the sunset of life gives me mystical lore,
And coming events cast their shadows before.

CLASSES OF THOUGHTS ON BASIS OF FORM.

334. With reference to their form, study the thoughts expressed by the following sentences:

1. He sees the house.
2. This is the house that Jack built.
3. The winds blew and the floods came.

In (1) the thought is single and therefore *simple*. In (2) the thought, considered as a whole, is *complex*, because it consists of a principal thought limited by a subordinate thought. In (3) the thought, considered as a whole, is *compound*, because it consists of two co-ordinate thoughts.

On the basis of form, thoughts are divided into three classes: **simple**, **complex** and **compound**.

1. A **simple thought** is a single thought considered apart from all other thoughts.
2. A **complex thought** is a thought consisting of a principal thought limited by one or more subordinate thoughts.
3. A **compound thought** is a thought consisting of two or more connected co-ordinate thoughts.

EXERCISE XLIX.

On the basis of form, classify the thoughts expressed by the following sentences:

1. A man who is industrious will succeed.
2. I saw the place where Johnson fell.
3. There is a Reaper whose name is Death.

4. The fern is a dainty plant.
5. It was wrong for him to deceive us.
6. But we silently gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

CLASSES OF THOUGHTS ON BASIS OF MEANING.

335. Writers on Psychology usually group the activities of the mind into three general powers: **intellect**, **sensibility**, and **will**. One of these powers is always dominant when the mind is acting.

I. The **intellect** is that power of the mind by which we *know*. A thought formed while the intellect is dominant has the form of a *declaration* or of an *interrogation*. The declarative form is the original and unmodified form of the thought; as,

1. Gold is yellow.
2. Water runs down hill.

The interrogative form is a modified form of the declarative thought in which the mind is seeking some missing element; as,

1. Where did you go?
2. Who gave you that book?

In (1) the predicate-attribute is unknown and asked for. By supplying the missing element the thought becomes declarative; as, You did go *to the postoffice*. What element is unknown in (2)?

II. The **sensibility** is that power of the mind by which we *feel*, or experience *emotions*. A thought formed while the sensibility is dominant is accompanied with strong emotion and has the form of an *exclamation*; as,

1. What a piece of work is man!
2. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!

III. The **will** is that power of the mind by which we *choose* and *execute*. A thought formed while the will is dominant has the form of a *command* or *entreaty*; as,

1. Love thyself last: cherish those hearts that hate thee.
2. Pardon me for my fault.

Thus, on the basis of meaning, thoughts are divided into four classes: **declarative**, **interrogative**, **exclamatory**, and **imperative**.

1. A **declarative thought** is a thought which has the form of a declaration. The predicate is always asserted of the subject.

2. An **interrogative thought** is a thought in which the mind is seeking some unknown element.

3. An **exclamatory thought** is a thought accompanied by strong emotion.

4. An **imperative thought** is a thought which has the form of a command or entreaty.

EXERCISE L.

On the basis of meaning, classify the thoughts in the following sentences:

1. What are you good for, my little man?
2. Answer that question for me if you can.
3. What a dust you are making!
4. Many have prophesied in my name.
5. Stand you directly in Antonius's way
When he doth run his course.
6. Wrong is, and it can not be ignored.

SUMMARY.

336. Following is an outline of the thought:

THE THOUGHT (331).

- I. Definition.
- II. Elements (332).
 1. Essential.
 - (1) Subject-idea.
 - (2) Attribute-idea.
 - (3) Relation-idea (Copula-idea).
 2. Modifying.
- III. Classes on Basis of Rank (333).
 1. Principal, or Independent.
 2. Subordinate, or Dependent.
 3. Co-ordinate, or Equal in Rank.
- IV. Classes on Basis of Form (334).
 1. Simple.
 2. Complex.
 3. Compound.

V. Classes on Basis of Meaning (335).

1. Declarative.
2. Interrogative.
3. Exclamatory.
4. Imperative.

REVIEW OF THE THOUGHT.

1. Define thought. What are the essential elements of a thought? What are the modifying elements?
2. Distinguish between principal and subordinate thoughts.
3. Distinguish between simple and complex thoughts.
4. Distinguish between declarative and interrogative thoughts. Show that the interrogative thought is a modified form of the declarative.
5. Show that the exclamatory thought may be declarative, interrogative, or imperative in form.
6. Name and define the three general powers of the mind.
7. What power of the mind is dominant when each of the four kinds of thoughts is formed?

CHAPTER XIII.

THE SENTENCE.

337. We have just learned (331) that a thought is the mental product formed by the mind when it asserts a relation between two ideas, or notions; that the thought has three essential elements, subject-idea, attribute-idea, and relation-idea (copula or asserting-idea) and that each element may have modifying-ideas. This is the division made in logic. For grammatical purposes, the following division is made: **thought-subject** and **thought-predicate**.

1. The **thought-subject** is that about which something is asserted. It includes the subject-idea and its modifying ideas.

2. The **thought-predicate** is that which is asserted of the subject. It includes the predicate-attribute and the asserting-idea together with their modifying-ideas.

In the sentence, "Some savages are dangerous," "some savages" expresses the thought-subject and "are dangerous," the thought-predicate. The subject-idea is expressed by "savages," and its modifying-idea, by

“some.” The predicate-attribute is expressed by “dangerous” and the asserting-idea, by “are.”

ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

338. A **sentence** is an expression of a thought in words. The form of the sentence is determined by the form of the thought expressed. The elements of the sentence usually correspond to the elements of the thought. The sentence has two **principal elements**: the **subject** and the **predicate**. In “Large birds fly swiftly,” “large birds” is the subject, and “fly swiftly” is the predicate. “Large” and “swiftly” are modifiers, and therefore, **subordinate elements**.

1. The **subject** is the word or group of words expressing the *thought-subject*.

2. The **predicate** is the word or group of words expressing the *thought-predicate*.

CLASSES OF SENTENCES ON BASIS OF RANK.

339. Study the following sentences with reference to the rank of the thoughts expressed by each:

1. I defended the man because he was old.
2. James studies history but Mary studies grammar.
3. The house, which stood on the hill and which was owned by the banker, was destroyed by the storm yesterday.

In (1) “I defended the man” expresses the leading or principal thought, and is therefore called the principal sentence. “Because he was old” expresses a subordinate thought, and is therefore a subordinate sentence.

In (2) “James studies history” and “Mary studies grammar” expresses independent co-ordinate thoughts, and are therefore independent co-ordinate sentences. Sentences may be co-ordinate with each other and subordinate to a principal sentence, as in (3).

On the basis of rank, the sentence may be divided into three classes: **principal**, **subordinate**, and **co-ordinate**.

1. A **principal sentence** is a sentence which expresses a principal thought. It does not depend upon any other sentence for its meaning; as,

I saw the house which was built of stone.

2. A **subordinate sentence** is a sentence which expresses a subordinate thought. It is always a modifier of some part of a principal sentence; as,

I saw the house which was built of stone.

3. A **co-ordinate sentence** is a sentence which expresses a co-ordinate thought. It is always equal in rank to some other sentence with which it is connected; as,

Dogs bark and fishes swim.

NOTE.—When sentences are combined to form a larger sentence, they are called **clauses**. Hereafter, we may use the term, **clause**, when referring to a sentence used as a part of a larger sentence.

EXERCISE LI.

On the basis of rank, classify the sentences, or clauses, in each of the following sentences:

1. Come where the lilies bloom.
2. If I knew, I would tell you.
3. John came but his sister did not.
4. We are happy now because God wills it.
5. Count that day lost whose low-descending sun
Views from thy hand no worthy action done.
6. Our acts our angels are, or good or ill,
Our fatal shadows that walk by us still.

CLASSES OF SENTENCES ON BASIS OF FORM.

340. Study the following sentences with reference to the number and rank of the thoughts expressed by each:

1. Flowers bloom in the spring.
2. He could not work because he was sick.
3. Men must work and women must weep.
4. The time when we should act is at hand and the time when we must cease to act will come.

The first sentence expresses but one thought. It is a simple sentence. The second sentence expresses a complex thought. It is a complex sentence. The third expresses a compound thought. It is a compound sentence.

On the basis of form, sentences may be divided into three classes: **simple**, **complex**, and **compound**.

1. A **simple sentence** is a sentence which expresses but one thought; as,

Good books are useful.

2. A **complex sentence** is a sentence which expresses a complex thought. It is always composed of one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses; as,

The pupil who studies will learn.

3. A **compound sentence** is a sentence which expresses a compound thought. It is always composed of two or more connected co-ordinate clauses; as,

Men may come and men may go,
But I go on forever.

NOTE.—When two or more complex sentences are combined to form a compound sentence, the combination is sometimes called a **compound-complex sentence**. See number 4.

EXERCISE LII.

Classify the following sentences on the basis of form:

1. Albany is the capital of New York.
2. The President's message was read by the clerk.
3. The scene around me was so beautiful that I scarcely noticed their absence.
4. When Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister, the Khe-dive was a puppet in the hands of the British.
5. By fairy hands their knell is rung;
By forms unseen their dirge is sung.
6. Hope tells a flattering tale,
Delusive, vain, and hollow.
7. Of all sad words of tongue or pen,
The saddest are these: "It might have been."

8. Toil on, poor heart, unceasingly;
And thou shalt find thy dream to be
A truth and noonday light to thee.

CLASSES OF SENTENCES ON BASIS OF MEANING.

341. Study the following sentences with reference to their meaning or purpose:

1. Gold is found in Alaska.
2. Who wrote the first English grammar?
3. How charming is divine philosophy!
4. Quit yourselves like men.

The first sentence expresses a declarative thought, and is therefore a declarative sentence. It appeals to the intellect and gives out information.

The second sentence expresses an interrogative thought, and is therefore an interrogative sentence. It appeals to the intellect and asks for information.

The third sentence expresses an exclamatory thought, and is therefore an exclamatory sentence. Its purpose is to arouse the emotions.

The fourth sentence expresses a command (an imperative thought), and is therefore an imperative sentence. Its purpose is to arouse the will.

On the basis of meaning or purpose, the sentence may be divided into four classes: **declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative.**

1. A **declarative sentence** is a sentence which expresses a declarative thought.

2. An **interrogative sentence** is a sentence which expresses an interrogative thought.

3. An **exclamatory sentence** is a sentence which expresses an exclamatory thought.

4. An **imperative sentence** is a sentence which expresses an imperative thought.

NOTE.—Pupils should distinguish sharply between *ideas* and *words*, and between *thoughts* and *sentences*. A thought is a mental thing; a sentence is a physical thing. A thought can exist in the mind only; a sentence, being physical, can not enter the mind. One can not literally convey his thoughts to

another; he simply puts out symbols (sentences) and these symbols cause similar thoughts to be produced in the mind of another. This power to produce a similar thought in the mind of another is what is meant by the term *express*.

EXERCISE LIII.

Classify the following sentences on the basis of form and of meaning:

1. Come into the garden, Maud.
2. What kind of people first inhabited England?
3. I awoke and I got up at once.
4. Forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors.
5. Oh that those lips had language!
6. Where are you going, my pretty maid?
7. The Lord said to Cain, "Where is thy brother?"
8. Judge not, that ye be not judged.
9. The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old.
10. The truth, itself, is not believed,
From one who often has deceived.

Observe the punctuation of the foregoing sentences and punctuate correctly the following:

11. James bring me that book
12. It is mind after all that does the work of the world
13. Trench says what a lesson the word diligence contains
14. A still small voice spake unto me
Thou art so full of misery
Were it not better not to be
15. What do you think
I'll shave you for nothing
And give you a drink

SUMMARY.

342. Compare this outline of the sentence with the outline of the thought (**336**).

THE SENTENCE (337).

I. Definition.

II. Elements.

1. Principal.

(1) Subject.

(2) Predicate.

2. Subordinate (Modifying).

III. Classes on Basis of Rank (339).

1. Principal.
2. Subordinate.
3. Co-ordinate.

IV. Classes on Basis of Form (340).

1. Simple.
2. Complex.
3. Compound.

V. Classes on Basis of Meaning (341).

1. Declarative.
2. Interrogative.
3. Exclamatory.
4. Imperative.

REVIEW OF THE SENTENCE.

1. Define sentence. Name and define the principal elements.

2. Distinguish between a thought and a sentence.

3. Can you write a thought on the blackboard? Can you give a thought to another and keep it at the same time? What is really meant by "A sentence *expresses* a thought"?

4. Classify the sentence and define each class on the basis of form. On the basis of meaning.

5. What sentences are addressed to the intellect? To the sensibility? To the will?

6. What punctuation mark follows the declarative sentence? The interrogative? The exclamatory? The imperative?

CHAPTER XIV.

ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

343. A further classification of the elements of the sentence will be made in this chapter.

An **element of a sentence** is any word or group of words which expresses a distinct part of the thought.

The classification on the basis of rank (**338**) has already been made. The classification with reference to **base** will be made next. For this purpose, study the italicized expressions in the following sentences:

1. *Really honest men* are trusted.
2. *Men of real honesty* are trusted.
3. *Men who are really honest* are trusted.

In (1) "*really honest men*" is the subject. "*Men*" is limited by the element "*really honest*," of which "*honest*" is the base limited by "*really*." Here, "*honest*" and "*really*" are called *word elements* because the base of each is a single word.

In (2) "*men of real honesty*" is the subject. "*Men*" is limited by the element, "*of real honesty*," of which "*of honesty*" is the base. "*Honesty*," the noun of the base, is limited by "*real*." "*Of real honesty*" is called a *phrase element* because its base is the phrase "*of honesty*."

In (3) "*men who are really honest*" is the subject. "*Men*" is limited by the element "*who are really honest*," which is called a *clause element* because the base is a clause.

From the foregoing, it will be observed that, with reference to **base**, there are three classes of elements: **word**, **phrase**, and **clause**.

1. A **word element** is an element whose base is a single word. Any part of speech may be a word element.

2. A **phrase element** is an element whose base is a phrase. There are four kinds of phrases:

1. Prepositional; as, He is a man *of wealth*.
2. Infinitive; as, He came *to visit me*.
3. Participial; as, He, *having lost his ax*, quit work.
4. Verb; as, He *had been working* all day.

3. A **clause element** is an element whose base is a clause. All subordinate clauses are clause elements.

EXERCISE LIV.

Classify the elements of the following sentences with reference to **base**:

1. The brook in the forest murmurs softly.
2. Newton, the great mathematician, was a firm believer in Christianity.
3. The boy, having been sick, has not prepared his lesson.
4. James believes that the world is round.

5. The Spanish Armada was defeated by the English.

6. It is a great pity to see so many people without any children to educate them.

CLASSES OF ELEMENTS ON BASIS OF FORM.

344. Study the elements of the following sentences with reference to form:

1. Studious pupils learn very rapidly.
2. Ours is a government by the people and for the people.
3. Honesty is a virtue which every one who wishes to be respected should possess.

In (1) "*studious*" has no modifier. It is, therefore, a simple element. "*Very rapidly*" is a complex element because its base, "*rapidly*," is limited by the subordinate element, "*very*."

In (2) "*by the people and for the people*" is a compound element because the base, consisting of two phrases joined by "*and*," is compound.

NOTE.—A clause element, being a subordinate sentence, must contain another clause to be a complex element, as in (3).

On the basis of form, elements are divided into three classes: **simple**, **complex**, and **compound**.

1. A **simple element** is one without modifiers, or considered apart from its modifiers.
2. A **complex element** is one whose base or some part of the base is modified.
3. A **compound element** is one with a compound base.

EXERCISE LV.

Classify the elements of the following sentences with reference to form:

1. Peking is the capital of China.
2. The Rhine and the Rhone rise in Switzerland.
3. Lincoln, who was a rail-splitter, became president.
4. By industry and by economy, he became wealthy.
5. Washington, who was a great general and who was our first president, was a Virginian.
6. They had a discussion about who wrote the first book.

CLASSES OF ELEMENTS ON BASIS OF USE.

345. Study the elements of the following sentences with reference to their use:

1. Mary studies grammar in a private school.
2. Lee and Jackson were great generals.
3. The buggy being broken, we walked.

In (1) "*grammar*" is the direct object of "*studies*." It is called an *objective element*. "*Private*" limits the noun "*school*." It is called an *adjective element*. "*In a private school*" is a phrase limiting the verb "*studies*." It is called an *adverbial element*.

In (2) "*and*" connects "*Lee*" and "*Jackson*." It is called a *connective element*.

In (3) "*The buggy being broken*" is used independently. It is called an *independent element*.

Thus, on the basis of use, elements are divided into five classes: **objective, adjective, adverbial, connective, and independent.**

1. An **objective element** is one used as the object of a verb or verbal.

2. An **adjective element** is one that does the work of an adjective.

3. An **adverbial element** is one that does the work of an adverb.

4. A **connective element** is one used to connect two parts of the sentence.

5. An **independent element** is one which has a logical connection with some other part of the sentence, but no grammatical connection.

NOTE.—*Independent*, in grammar, means *not dependent in grammatical construction*.

EXERCISE LVI.

Classify the elements the following sentences with reference to use:

1. The condor is the largest bird that flies.
2. The battle of Hastings was fought in 1066.
3. Napoleon died at St. Helena.

4. Water is composed of oxygen and hydrogen.
5. Henry may go when the bell rings.
6. Money being furnished, he purchased the farm.

ORDER OF THE ELEMENTS.

346. **Order** means the arrangement of the elements in the sentence. Since, in English, there are few inflections to indicate the various relations, the order of the elements is often of importance in determining the meaning of the sentence.

Order is said to be natural or inverted.

1. The **natural order** of elements in a sentence is:

(1) The *simple subject*, preceded by word modifiers, and followed by phrase and clause modifiers; as,

(a) A *large train of passengers* has arrived.

(b) He *that is not with me* is against me.

(2) The *simple predicate*, followed by its modifiers; as

(a) Wellington defeated *Napoleon at Waterloo*.

(b) Plants grow *where the soil is fertile*.

The usual arrangement of the declarative sentence is the natural order.

2. The **inverted order** is any departure from the natural order.

347. The inverted order is generally used:

1. In interrogative sentences; as,

(1) Where did *he* go?

(2) What do *they* want?

If the thought-subject is unknown and asked for, the arrangement is the natural order; as,

Who gave you that book?

2. In imperative sentences; as,

(1) Praise *ye* the Lord.

(2) Cast *thou* this stone at the offender.

The subject of the imperative sentence is usually omitted.

3. In exclamatory sentences; as,

- (1) What a piece of work is *man*!
- (2) How frightful is the *grave*!

The exclamatory sentence very commonly has the natural order; as,

O, that those *lips* had language!

4. In declarative sentences for the purpose of heightening rhetorical effect; as,

- (1) Into the valley of death rode the *Six Hundred*.
- (2) Great is *Diana* of the Ephesians.
- (3) Him followed his next *mate*.—Milton.

Force of expression requires that emphatic words be placed in emphatic positions, usually at the beginning or at the end of the sentence.

Any element removed from its usual position in the sentence, attracts attention and thereby is made emphatic.

General Rule of Order.—That which is to be thought of first should be expressed first, and ideas to be associated together should be expressed by elements closely connected.

MISPLACED ELEMENTS.

348. Ambiguity and obscurity result frequently from disregard or ignorance of the principles of order. The elements of a sentence should be so placed that the intended meaning can not be misunderstood.

The following sentences are faulty:

1. We saw a man driving a flock of sheep on horseback.
2. Several men died in the ship of fever.
3. I have only written three pages.

Such sentences may be corrected by changing the position of the misplaced element:

1. We saw a man on horseback driving a flock of sheep.
2. In the ship, several men died of fever, or Several men in the ship died of fever.
3. I have written only three pages.

EXERCISE LVII.

Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. Some virtues are only seen in adversity.
2. I am neither acquainted with the writer nor his works.
3. People ceased to wonder by degrees.
4. A man is digging a well with a Roman nose in our yard.
5. The man has bought a new piano with whiskers.
6. She was given a book by a friend that she had never read.
7. All that glitters is not gold.
8. There are boats and lawn tennis and no mosquitoes to amuse the boarders.
9. The beaux of that day used the abominable art of painting their faces as well as the women.—Disraeli.
10. Mr. Carlyle has taught us that silence is golden in thirty volumes.—Morley.
11. Most men dream, but all do not.—Beattie.
12. I wish the reader to clearly understand.—Ruskin.
13. I have now and then inserted in the text characters of books that I have not read on the faith of my guides.—Hallam.
14. The English nearly lost two thousand men.
15. Fights frequently ensue in consequence, but are generally put a stop to before any material damage is done by the interference of friends.
16. The reporter sent an account of the sad accident to the morning newspaper.
17. His grandfather died from cancer on his mother's side.
18. Mr. Jones needs a doctor, who has broken his leg.
19. The figs were in small wooden boxes which we ate.
20. A gold watch was found by a child with steel hands.

SUMMARY.

349. Following is an outline of the element:

THE ELEMENT.

- I. Definition.
- II. As to Rank (338).
 1. Principal.
 - (1) Subject.
 - (2) Predicate.
 2. Subordinate (Modifying).

- III. As to Base (343).
 - 1. The Word.
 - 2. The Phrase.
 - 3. The Clause.
- IV. As to Form (344).
 - 1. Simple.
 - 2. Complex.
 - 3. Compound.
- V. As to Use (345).
 - 1. Objective.
 - 2. Adjective.
 - 3. Adverbial.
 - 4. Connective.
 - (1) Co-ordinate.
 - (2) Subordinate.
 - 5. Independent.
- VI. As to Order (346).
 - 1. Natural.
 - 2. Inverted.

REVIEW OF THE ELEMENT.

- 1. Define element of a sentence.
- 2. What is meant by the *base* of an element?
- 3. Classify the element with reference to base.
- 4. Write a sentence with a phrase element used as the subject; as the object; as an adjective; as an adverb.
- 5. Write a sentence with a clause element used as the subject; as the object; as an adjective; as an adverb.
- 6. Write a sentence in which a clause is the principal term of a phrase element. In which a phrase is the principal term of a phrase element.

CHAPTER XV.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

350. The office of the simple sentence is to express a single thought. It has one subject and one predicate, and may contain any element except the clause.

The **subject** is the word or group of words expressing the thought-subject. In simple sentences, the subject is always a word element or a phrase element. When we wish to distinguish between the subject and that part of the subject (the base) which governs the verb in person and number, the following terms are used:

1. The **simple** or **grammatical subject** is the word or group of words which denotes the subject-idea without the modifiers; as,

- (1) *Boys* study.
- (2) *Large birds* of prey fly swiftly.
- (3) *To sing well* is a valuable accomplishment.

2. The **complex** or **logical subject** is the simple subject with its modifiers; as,

- (1) *Large birds of prey* fly swiftly.
- (2) *To sing well* is a valuable accomplishment.

The **predicate** is the word or group of words expressing the thought-predicate. With reference to the predicate, the following terms are used:

1. The **simple** or **grammatical predicate** is the word or group of words which denotes the asserting-idea together with the attribute-idea. It may be an attributive verb or a copulative verb with its complement; as,

- (1) The boys *ran* very swiftly down the hill.
- (2) Washington *was* the first *president* of the United States.
- (3) The tree *is large* enough to bear fruit.

2. The **complex** or **logical predicate** is the simple predicate with its modifiers; as,

- (1) The boys *ran very swiftly down the hill*.
- (2) Washington *was the first president of the United States*.
- (3) The tree *is large enough to bear fruit*.

THE PHRASE.

351. The part that the word element performs in the structure of the sentence has been explained along with the parts of speech. The phrase element will be considered here.

A **phrase** is a group of related words, not having a subject and predicate, used to fill the office of a part of speech.

With reference to *base*, phrases are divided into four classes: **prepositional**, **infinitive**, **participial**, and **verb**.

1. A **prepositional phrase** is a phrase whose base consists of a preposition and its object; as,

- (1) Oranges grow *in Florida*.
- (2) Cotton is a product *of the southern states*.

2. An **infinitive phrase** is a phrase whose base is an infinitive; as,

- (1) *To walk* is good exercise.
- (1) He came *to see the show*.

3. A **participial phrase** is a phrase whose base is a participle; as,

- (1) The child, *having been badly hurt*, was taken home.
- (2) *Having finished his work*, James was excused.

4. A **verb phrase** is a phrase whose base contains a finite verb; as,

- (1) Virtue *will bring* its reward.
- (2) The child *might have been lost* in the woods.

CLASSES ON BASIS OF FORM.

352. On the basis of form, phrases are divided into three classes: **simple**, **complex**, and **compound**.

1. A **simple phrase** is a single phrase; as,

- (1) All are architects *of fate*.
- (2) James waded *through the deep snow*.

2. A **complex phrase** is a phrase containing a subordinate phrase; as,

- (1) The kite sailed *over the tops of the trees*.
- (2) The girl is standing *by the side of her mother*.

3. A **compound phrase** is a phrase made up of phrases of equal rank; as,

- (1) A boy can not be *in the house and out of it* at the same time.
- (2) He studies *in the morning and at night*.

CLASSES ON THE BASIS OF USE.

353. On the basis of use, phrases are divided into three classes: **substantive**, **adjective**, and **adverbial**.

1. A **substantive phrase** is a phrase which fills the office of a noun; as,

- (1) Mary likes *to study grammar*.
- (2) "*To the Work*" is the name of a song.

2. An **adjective phrase** is a phrase which fills the office of an adjective; as,

- (1) Put on the dauntless spirit *of resolution*.
- (2) The man has apples *to sell*.

3. An **adverbial phrase** is a phrase which fills the office of an adverb; as,

- (1) Man shall not live *by bread alone*.
- (2) Hannibal took his army *across the Alps*.

EXERCISE LVIII.

1. Write sentences, using in each a substantive phrase: (1) as the subject of a verb; (2) as the object of a verb; (3) as the complement of a verb; (4) as the object of a preposition.

2. Write sentences, using in each an adjective phrase: (1) to limit the subject of a verb; (2) to limit the object of a verb; (3) to limit the complement of a verb; (4) to limit the object of a preposition.

3. Write sentences, using in each an adverbial phrase: (1) to limit a verb; (2) to limit an adjective; (3) to limit an adverb.

4. Make an outline of the phrase.

EXPANSION AND CONTRACTION.

354. Some word elements may be expanded into phrase elements; as,

1. A *wealthy* man has purchased the home.
2. A man *of wealth* has purchased the home.

Some phrase elements may be contracted into word elements; as,

1. He *works with care*.
2. He *works carefully*.

EXERCISE LIX.

Expand the italicized word elements into phrase elements.

1. A *careful* worker makes few mistakes.
2. John studies *faithfully* and *diligently*.
3. *Certainly* he is an *able* man.
4. A *sensible* boy will study *earnestly*.
5. *Now* we will reverse the exercise.

Contract the italicized phrase elements into word elements.

6. The old house stood *in this place*.
7. *At last* they are *resting in that place*.
8. He *did leave* the class *at once*.
9. We *do read* the plays of *Shakespeare*.
10. *At that time* the soldiers fought *with bravery*.

ANALYSIS OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

355. Analysis consists in classifying the sentence, separating it into its elements, and describing them. This may be done in two ways, by **verbal description** and by a **diagram**. The first appeals to the ear, the second, to the eye. Each helps the other.

Observe how the elements of the sentence are arranged in the following

DIAGRAMS.

1. Fishes swim.

Fishes	swim.
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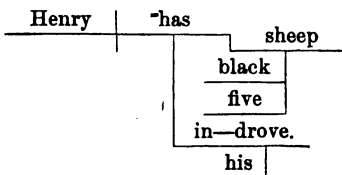
2. Time is precious.

Time	is—precious.
------	--------------

3. The mouth of the river is very wide.

mouth		is—wide.
The	of—river	very
	the	

4. Henry has five black sheep in his drove.



Explanations.—A vertical line separates the simple subject from the simple predicate. The dash separates the copulative verb from the attribute complement, and the preposition from its object. Modifying elements are subordinated by dropping them below the elements which they limit. The relative position of an element in the sentence determines the direction of its line in the diagram: *Word elements* turn to the left when they precede the element modified; to the right, when they follow it. *Phrase elements* always turn to the right.

In (4) "*five*" limits "*black sheep*." Probably, Henry has more than *five* sheep, but he has only five *black* sheep.

VERBAL ANALYSIS.

- 356.** Note carefully the order of analysis:

1. "*Fishes swim*" is a simple declarative sentence, of which "*fishes*" is the subject and "*swim*" is the predicate.

2. "*Time is precious*" is a simple declarative sentence, of which "*time*" is the subject and "*is precious*" is the predicate. "*Is*" is the copula and "*precious*" is the attribute complement.

3. "*The mouth of the river is very wide*" is a simple declarative sentence, of which "*the mouth of the river*" is the complex subject, of which "*mouth*" is the simple subject, modified by "*the*," a simple adjective word element, and by "*of the river*" a simple adjective phrase element; "*of river*" is the base, "*river*," the noun of the base, is limited by "*the*," a simple adjective word

element. "*Is very wide*" is the complex predicate, of which "*is wide*" is the simple predicate, composed of the copula "*is*" and the attribute complement "*wide*," limited by "*very*," a simple adverbial word element.

4. "*Henry has five black sheep in his drove*" is a simple declarative sentence, of which "*Henry*" is the subject; "*has five black sheep in his drove*" is the complex predicate, of which "*has*" is the simple predicate modified by "*five black sheep*," a complex objective word element, of which "*sheep*," the base, is modified by "*black*" and "*five*," two simple adjective word elements. "*Five*" modifies "*sheep*" as modified by "*black*." Notice how this is indicated in the diagram.

PROGRAM FOR VERBAL ANALYSIS.

357. Some *definite plan* should be closely followed in verbal analysis. The following has the advantage of being systematic and logical:

1. Classify the sentence, (1) as to form, (2) as to meaning.
2. Give the complex subject.
3. Give the simple subject.
4. Describe the modifiers of the simple subject, (1) as to form, (2) as to use, (3) as to base.
5. Give the base of each modifier and describe its modifiers as above.
6. Give the complex predicate.
7. Give the simple predicate.
8. Describe each modifier of the simple predicate, (1) as to form, (2) as to use, (3) as to base.
9. Give the base of each modifier and describe its modifiers as above.
10. Point out the connective and independent elements, if any.

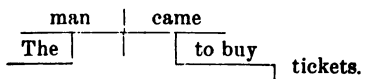
INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

358. Observe how the infinitives and participles are arranged in the following diagrams:

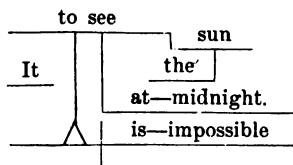
1. To save is to earn.

To save		is—to earn.
<hr/>		

2. The man came to buy tickets.



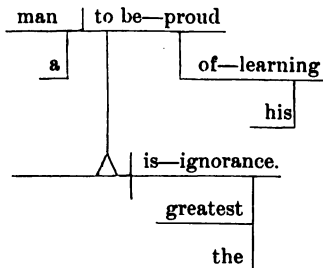
3. It is impossible to see the sun at midnight.



"It" is an expletive used to throw the subject after the predicate.

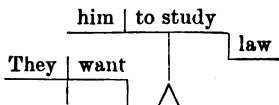
4. For a man to be proud of his learning is the greatest ignorance.

For



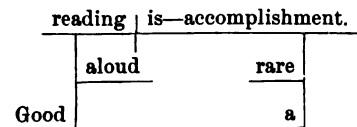
"For" is an expletive. It is independent. The line separating the subject from the predicate in a *clausal phrase* extends only to the base line to indicate that the infinitive *assumes* but does not *assert*.

5. They want him to study law.



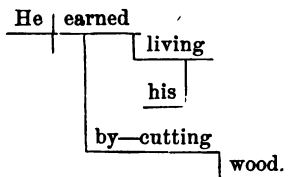
Verbal Analysis.—“*They want him to study law*” is a simple declarative sentence, of which “*they*” is the subject, “*want him to study law*” is the complex predicate, of which “*want*” is the simple predicate, modified by “*him to study law*,” a simple objective clausal phrase element, of which “*him*” is the subject and “*to study law*” is the complex predicate; “*to study*” is the simple predicate, and modified by “*law*,” a simple objective word element.

6. Good reading aloud is a rare accomplishment.

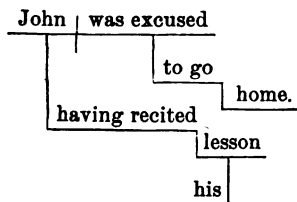


“*Good*” modifies “*reading aloud*.”

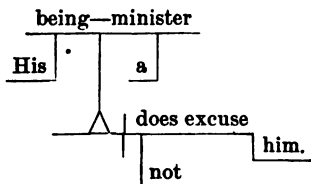
7. He earned his living by cutting wood.



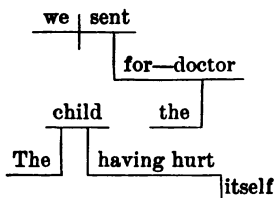
8. John, having recited his lesson, was excused to go home.



9. His being a minister does not excuse him.



10. The child having hurt itself, we sent for the doctor.

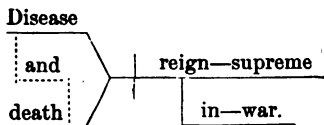


"*The child having hurt itself*" is grammatically independent, but logically it limits "*sent*."

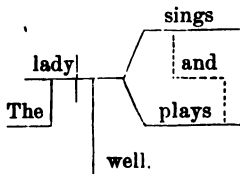
SIMPLE SENTENCES WITH COMPOUND ELEMENTS.

359. Observe the arrangement of each compound element in the following diagrams:

1. Disease and death reign supreme in war.

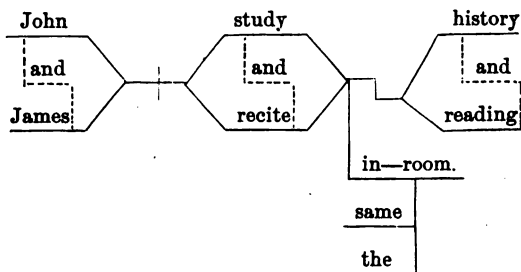


2. The lady sings and plays well.



"*Well*" limits both "*sings*" and "*plays*."

3. John and James study and recite history and reading in the same room.

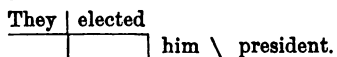


Verbal Analysis.—“*Disease and death reign supreme in war*” is a simple declarative sentence, of which “*disease and death*” is the compound subject, composed of two members, “*disease*” and “*death*,” connected by “*and*,” a simple co-ordinate connective word element; “*reign supreme in war*” is the complex predicate, of which “*reign supreme*” is the simple predicate, of which “*reign*” is the copula modified by “*in war*,” a simple adverbial phrase element, and “*supreme*” is the attribute complement.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES.

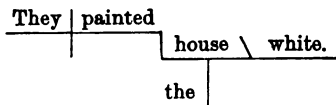
360. The following diagrams illustrate various constructions:

1. They elected him president.



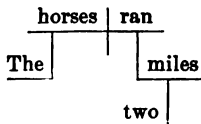
“*President*” is a factitive object and limits “*him*”

2. They painted the house white.



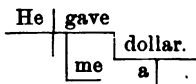
“*White*” is a factitive adjective limiting “*house*.”

3. The horses ran two miles.



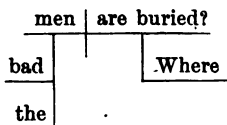
"Miles" is a noun used adverbially.

4. He gave me a dollar.



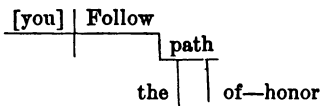
"Me" is an indirect object.

5. Where are the bad men buried?



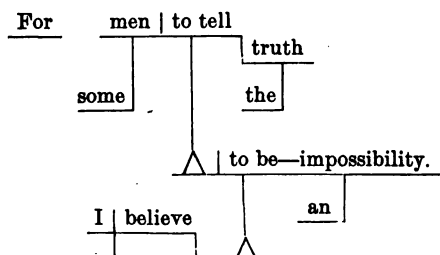
Interrogative sentences are arranged in the diagrams as if they were declarative. The question mark must be placed at the termination.

6. Follow the path of honor.



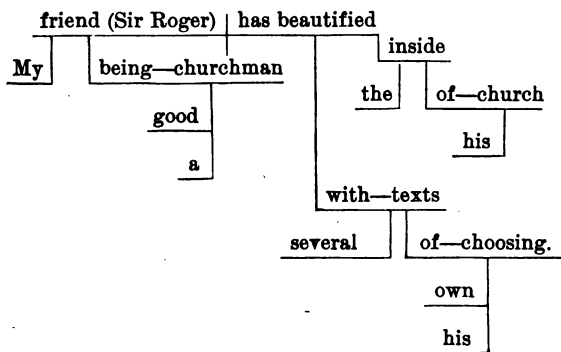
In the imperative sentence the subject is supplied in brackets.

7. For some men to tell the truth I believe to be an impossibility.

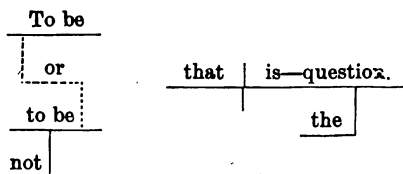


"For" is an expletive.

8. My friend, Sir Roger, being a good churchman, has beautified the inside of his church with several texts of his own choosing.—Addison.



9. To be or not to be, that is the question.



Independent elements are placed to one side.

EXERCISE LX.

Diagram and analyze the following sentences:

1. Power is knowledge put into practice.
2. Socrates, Aristotle, and Plato were Greek philosophers.
3. No vicious family regards the Sabbath.
4. It is warm enough to melt the snow.
5. To debate with your conscience is not wise.
6. The fat of the body is fuel laid away for use.
7. No one ever saw fat men heading a riot or herding together in turbulent mobs.
8. What did you come here for?
9. How wonderful is sleep!
10. You can hear him swing his heavy sledge
With measured beat and slow.—Longfellow.
11. Well had the boding tremblers learned to trace
The day's disasters in his morning face.—Goldsmith.
12. Stormed at with shot and shell
Boldly they rode and well.—Tennyson.
13. To bear is to conquer our fate.—Campbell.
14. With what interest do we look upon any relic of early human history!—Agassiz.
15. Said but once, said but softly, not marked at all, words
revive before me in darkness and solitude.—De Quincey.
16. A man hardened in depravity would have been perfectly
contented with an acquittal so complete, announced in language so gracious.—Macaulay.
17. The Stamp Act was a direct tax laid upon the whole American people by Parliament.—John Fiske.
18. Law, in its most general and comprehensive sense, signifies a rule of action.—Blackstone.
19. A wide-spreading, hopeful disposition is your only true umbrella in this vale of tears.—Aldrich.
20. Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne,
In rayless majesty now stretches forth
Her leaden scepter, o'er a slumbering world.—Young.
21. One touch of nature makes the whole world kin.
22. We heard the thunder roll and saw the lightning flash.
23. Louis of France was elected chief of the expedition.
24. It is not for your health thus to commit
Your weak condition to the raw, cold morning.
25. Here, under leave of Brutus and the rest,
Come I to speak in Caesar's funeral.
26. Now is the winter of our discontent
Made glorious summer by the son of York.
27. His withered cheek and tresses gray
Seemed to have known a better day.

28. He will watch from dawn to gloom
The lake-reflected sun illumine
The yellow bees in the ivy-bloom.—Shelley.
29. Here shall he see no enemy
But winter and rough weather.
30. How could this noble fabric be designed
And fashioned by a maker, brute and blind?

CHAPTER XVI.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

361. A **complex sentence** is a sentence which expresses a complex thought. It always contains one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses. The only difference between the simple sentence and the complex sentence is the **clause element**.

A **clause element** is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate, and filling the office of a single part of speech. A clause element is always a subordinate clause.

CLASSES OF CLAUSES ON BASIS OF RANK.

362. On the basis of rank, clauses are divided into two classes: **principal** and **subordinate**.

1. A **principal clause** is a clause which is not used as a modifier; as,

- (1) *The trees shake* when the wind blows.
(2) *They that touch pitch will be defiled.*

2. A **subordinate clause** is a clause which is used as a modifier; as,

- (1) The trees shake *when the wind blows*.
(2) They *that touch pitch* will be defiled.

CLASSES OF CLAUSES ON BASIS OF MEANING.

363. On the basis of meaning, clauses may be divided into four classes: **declarative**, **interrogative**, **imperative**, and **exclamatory**.

1. A **declarative clause** is a clause which makes a statement; as,

- (1) The statement, *that the prisoner escaped*, is false.
- (2) She knows *that Columbus discovered America*.

2. An **interrogative clause** is a clause which expresses a question; as,

- (1) "*What have I done?*" is asked by the knave.
- (2) Cain said, "*Am I my brother's keeper?*"

3. An **imperative clause** is a clause which expresses a command or an entreaty; as,

- (1) His motto was, "*Get busy.*"
- (2) "*Forgive me,*" he said.

4. An **exclamatory clause** is a clause which expresses strong feeling or emotion; as,

- (1) These were Hamlet's words: "*What a piece of work is man!*"
- (2) "*Long live the king!*" was heard on every side.

CLASSES OF CLAUSES ON BASIS OF FORM.

364. On the basis of form, clauses are divided into three classes: **simple**, **complex**, and **compound**.

1. A **simple clause** is a single clause; as,

- (1) James has learned *that industry pays*.
- (2) We have never seen the house *that Jack built*.

2. A **complex clause** is a clause containing a subordinate clause; as,

- (1) This is the malt *that lay in the house that Jack built*.
- (2) The person *who does that duty which lies nearest to him* will succeed.

3. A **compound clause** is a clause composed of clauses of equal rank; as,

- (1) This is the place *where the pilgrims landed and where the famous Plymouth Rock rests*.
- (2) *If it does not storm and if the horse does not give out*, we shall reach the city before night.

CLASSES OF CLAUSES ON BASIS OF USE.

365. On the basis of use clauses are divided into three classes: **substantive**, **adjective**, and **adverbial**.

1. A **substantive clause** is a clause which fills the office of a noun; as,

(1) We can prove *that the earth is round*.

(2) *That you have wronged me* doth appear in this.

The substantive clause, frequently called the **noun clause**, may fill the office of a noun in five different constructions: *subject*, *complement*, *object of a verb* or *verbal*, *object of a preposition*, and in *apposition*.

EXERCISE LXI.

Read the substantive clauses in the following sentences, and give the construction of each:

1. That all men must die is certain.
2. "Know thyself" is a wise saying.
3. The question is, what shall be done with intemperance?
4. They believe that stars are suns.
5. He did not know what the message meant.
6. They left before the sun rose.
7. But that I am forbid, I could a tale unfold.
8. The fact that he was absent is significant.
9. It is asked of you, "What can you do?"
10. The world will not anxiously inquire who you are.

2. An **adjective clause** is a clause which fills the office of an adjective; as,

(1) The evil *that men do* lives after them.

(2) He visited the city *where Columbus was born*.

Adjective clauses are *restrictive* or *non-restrictive* (147).

EXERCISE LXII.

Read the adjective clauses in the following sentences; tell what they modify, and whether they are restrictive or non-restrictive:

1. I had a dream which was not all a dream.
2. It was the time when lilies blow.
3. Words, which are signs of ideas, are divided into classes.
4. They never fail who die in a just cause.
5. God helps those that help themselves.
6. This is the spot where Warren fell.
7. Shylock, who was a Jew, wanted his bond.
8. Wine makes the face of him who drinks to excess blush for his habits.
9. The Mississippi River, which springs from Lake Itasca, flows into the Gulf of Mexico.
10. There is no fireside but has one vacant chair.

3. An **adverbial clause** is a clause which fills the office of an adverb; as,

- (1) Go *where duty calls thee*.
- (2) *If you have tears*, prepare to shed them now.

Adverbial clauses may be classed as clauses of:

1. **Time**; as, We will wait *until you return*.
2. **Place**; as, He went *where the water is deep*.
3. **Manner**; as, I shall proceed *as you may direct*.
4. **Condition**; as, You will succeed *if you try*.
5. **Concession**; as, *If the man is poor*, he is honorable.
6. **Result**; as, The load was so heavy *that the wagon broke down*.
7. **Purpose**; as, Judge not, *that ye be not judged*.
8. **Comparison**; as, He works faster *than he did*.
9. **Cause or Reason**; as, They came *because you were here*.

EXERCISE LXIII.

Read the adverbial clauses in the following sentences; classify them, and tell what each modifies:

1. Make hay while the sun shines.
2. As the upright man thinks so he speaks.
3. James is taller than Henry.
4. Peace rules the day when reason rules the hour.
5. He was so weak that he fell.
6. If you will do the work, I will pay you.
7. It rained last night, because the ground is wet this morning.
8. He learns because he studies.
9. Washington was as good as he was great.
10. Come where the lilies bloom.
11. We strive that we may succeed.

12. While Louis XIV reigned, Europe was at war.
13. The upright man speaks as he thinks.
14. People act as they have been taught.
15. So thick were the fluttering snow flakes, that even the trees were hidden by them the greater part of the time.

EXERCISE LXIV.

1. Write sentences, using in each a substantive clause: (1) as subject of a verb; (2) as object of a verb; (3) as the complement of a verb; (4) as the object of a preposition; (5) as an appositive modifier.
2. Write sentences, using in each an adjective clause: (1) that is restrictive; (2) that is non-restrictive.
3. Write sentences, using in each an adverbial clause: (1) of place; (3) of manner; (4) of condition; (5) of concession; (6) of result; (7) of purpose; (8) of comparison; (9) of cause; (10) of reason.
4. Make an outline of the clause.

EXPANSION AND CONTRACTION.

366. Some word and phrase elements may be expanded into clause elements; as,

1. A *polite* boy is always respected.
2. James came *to see the show*.
 - (1) A boy *who is polite* is always respected.
 - (2) James came *that he might see the show*.

Some clause elements may be contracted into word and phrase elements; as,

1. *If he perseveres*, he will succeed.
2. The trees *which were along the road* were oaks.
 - (1) *By persevering*, he will succeed.
 - (2) The trees *along the road* were oaks.

EXERCISE LXV.

Expand the italicized word and phrase elements into clause elements:

1. Every *great* action has a prospective greatness.
2. The artist hopes *to gain the prize*.
3. I believe *him to be an honest man*.
4. Napoleon *being exiled*, his adherents lost hope.
5. We honor *the brave*.
6. We rise by things *under our feet*.

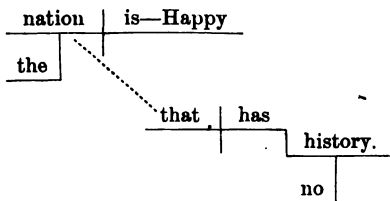
Contract the italicized clause elements into word and phrase elements:

7. The patriots fought *that they might gain freedom.*
8. A man *who is deceitful* can never be trusted.
9. We are desirous *that you succeed.*
10. He failed *because he was stupid.*
11. Bismarck, *who is often called the "Iron Chancellor,"* saw his dream of an empire realized.
12. *When vice prevails and impious men bear sway,*
The post of honor is a private station.—Addison.

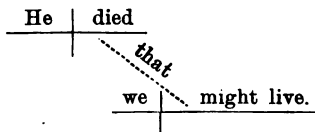
ANALYSIS OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

367. Observe how the clause element is joined to the word which the clause limits:

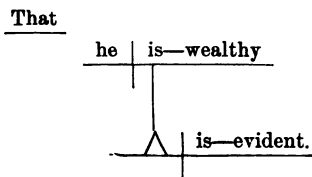
1. Happy is the nation that has no history.



2. He died that we might live.



3. That he is wealthy is evident.



Verbal Analysis.—1. "*Happy is the nation that has no history*" is a complex declarative sentence, of which "*the nation that has no history*" is the complex subject; "*nation*," the simple subject, is modified by "*the*," a simple adjective word element, and by "*that has no history*," a simple adjective clause element, of which "*that*" is the subject and also the connective; "*has no history*" is the complex predicate, of which "*has*" is the simple predicate modified by "*no history*," a complex objective word element, of which "*history*," the base, is modified by "*no*," a simple adjective word element; of which sentence "*is happy*" is the predicate, composed of the copula "*is*" and the attribute complement "*happy*."

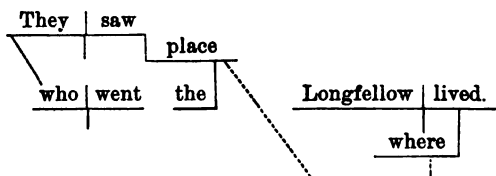
2. "*He died that we might live*" is a complex declarative sentence, of which "*he*" is the subject; "*died that we might live*" is the complex predicate, of which "*died*" is the simple predicate modified by "*that we might live*," a simple adverbial clause element, of which "*that*" is the connective, "*we*" is the subject, and "*might live*" is the predicate.

3. "*That he is wealthy is evident*" is a complex declarative sentence, of which "*that he is wealthy*" is the subject; "*that*" is an expletive introducing the clause, of which "*he*" is the subject and "*is wealthy*" is the predicate, composed of the copula "*is*" and the attribute complement "*wealthy*"; of which sentence "*is evident*" is the predicate, composed of the copula "*is*" and the attribute complement "*evident*."

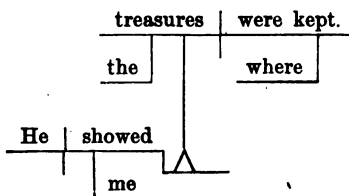
MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES.

368. The following diagrams illustrate various constructions of the clause:

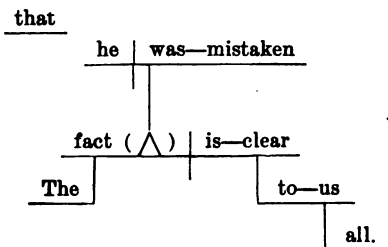
1. They who went saw the place where Longfellow lived.



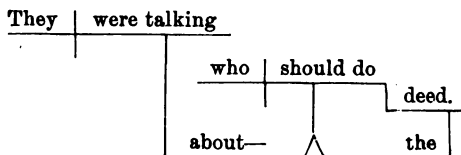
2. He showed me where the treasures were kept.



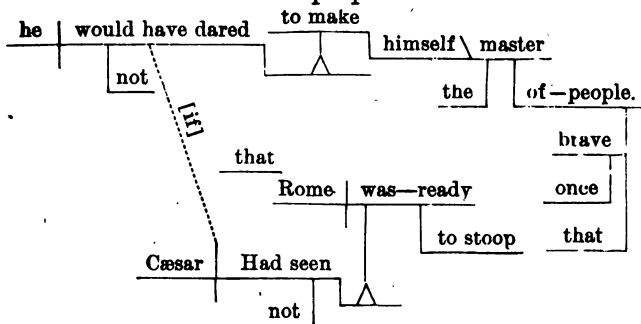
3. The fact that he was mistaken is clear to us all.



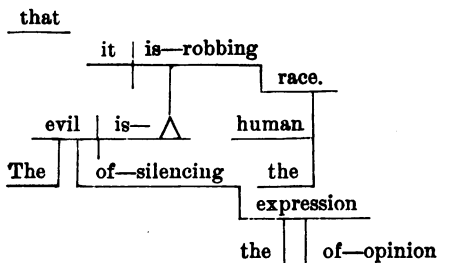
4. They were talking about who should do the deed.



5. Had not Cæsar seen that Rome was ready to stoop, he would not have dared to make himself the master of—people.



6. The evil of silencing the expression of opinion is that it is robbing the human race.



EXERCISE LXVI.

Diagram and analyze the following sentences:

1. If a man die, shall he live again?
2. An idler is a watch that wants both hands.
3. I tell you that which ye yourselves do know.
4. His praise is lost who stays till all commend.
5. His misery was such that none of the bystanders could refrain from weeping.
6. The heart distrusting asks if this be joy.
7. I am glad that you have come.
8. Are you certain that caterpillars become butterflies?
9. I am sure that Washington was a Virginian.
10. We are sorry that you hurt yourself.
11. I am confident that he will come.
12. Philosophers are still debating whether the will has any control over the current of thought in our dreams.
13. Napoleon turned his Simplon road aside in order that he might save a tree mentioned by Caesar.
14. The advice that St. Ambrose gave St. Augustine in regard to conformity to local custom was in substance this: "When in Rome, do as the Romans do."
15. There has been some dispute about who wrote "Shakespeare's Plays".
16. Though thou shouldst bray a fool in a mortar, yet will not his foolishness depart from him.
17. When my father and my mother forsake me, then the Lord will take me up.
18. He was desirous that the people should think for themselves as well as tax themselves.—Macaulay.
19. We rise by the things that are under our feet,
By what we have mastered of greed and gain,
By the pride deposed and the passion slain,
And the vanquished ills that we hourly meet.—Holland.
20. We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.
21. In the lexicon of youth, which fate reserves for a bright manhood, there is no such word as *fail*!—Bulwer.
22. I had rather be a country servant-maid
Than a great queen, with this condition,
To be thus taunted, scorned, and baited at.—Shakespeare.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

369. A **compound sentence** is a sentence which expresses a compound thought. It always contains two or more independent clauses, which are called the **members** of the compound sentence. No element is found in the compound sentence, which may not be found in the complex sentence.

CLASSES OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

370. On the basis of the relation between the members, compound sentences may be divided into four classes:

1. Those whose members express thoughts along the **same line**; as,

- (1) The clouds have scattered and the sun is shining.
- (2) Hamilton smote the rock of the national resources, and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth.—Webster.
- (3) It rains, and the wind is never weary.

2. Those whose members express thoughts in **alternation**; as,

- (1) It is true, or I am mistaken.
- (2) Either Hamlet was mad, or he feigned madness admirably.
- (3) A king must win, or he must forfeit his crown.

3. Those whose members express thoughts in **opposition**; as,

- (1) The man dies, but his memory lives.
- (2) Clever men are good, but they are not the best.—Carlyle.
- (3) A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter.

4. Those whose members express thoughts in the relation of **cause and effect**; as,

- (1) He pays his debts, therefore he is honest.
- (2) The season was dry, hence the crops failed.
- (3) James is sick, so he will not be in school to-day.

EXPANSION AND CONTRACTION.

371. Some simple sentences and some complex sentences may be expanded into compound sentences; as,

1. Being industrious, the people became prosperous.
2. When he spoke, it was done.
 - (1) The people were industrious, therefore they became prosperous.
 - (2) He spoke, and it was done.

Some compound sentences may be contracted into simple or complex sentences; as,

1. Homer was the greatest poet of antiquity, and he wrote the Iliad.
2. I demand of him a pound of flesh, and it is dearly bought.
 - (1) Homer, the greatest poet of antiquity, wrote the Iliad.
 - (2) The pound of flesh which I demand of him is dearly bought.

EXERCISE LXVII.

Expand the following simple or complex sentences into equivalent compound sentences:

1. Wandering from place to place, she vainly sought for the long-lost Gabriel.
2. The Indians proving hostile, the settlers returned to their starting-point.
3. The trumpet having sounded, the battle began.
4. The Phoenicians, who were daring navigators, made many voyages to Britain.
5. "Ivanhoe", which is an interesting book, was written by Sir Walter Scott.
6. A man, while he was digging a well, found a pot of gold.

Contract the following compound sentences into equivalent simple or complex sentences:

7. Trust men, and they will be true to you.
8. The trouble can not be cured, therefore it must be endured.
9. The buggy was broken, so he walked.
10. Italy bought the Bonaparte papers, and they were deposited in the Royal Library at Florence.
11. He worked faithfully, hence he gained the confidence of his employer.

12. Bunyan wrote "Pilgrim's Progress", and it has been translated into many languages.

13. Time waits for no man, and tide waits for no man.

14. The spirit of the Almighty is within us, the spirit of the Almighty is around us, and the spirit of the Almighty is above us.

ELLIPSIS.

372. Ellipsis is the omission of a part of a sentence necessary to the grammatical construction but not to the meaning.

Clearness and force are often gained by omitting words whose meaning either is expressed in some other part of the sentence, or may readily be supplied by the mind. But in grammatical analysis, the omitted words must be restored.

The following sentences are made elliptical by omitting the words in brackets. Read the sentences, omitting the words in brackets, and note the gain in force and clearness:

1. You are taller than I [am tall].
2. [I] thank you.
3. Will you go with him? I will [go with him].
4. Cora studies history, but James does not [study history].
5. It is half past twelve [o'clock].
6. He looks as [he would look] if he were tired.
7. This is the house [that] I live in.
8. Will you recite? I will try [to recite].
9. He departed [from] this life.
10. Close [you] the door, if [it]* you please.
11. His work [being] done, he goes to the ball game.
12. He fell while [he was] bravely fighting.
13. Are you studying? I am [studying].
14. He can not go. Why [can he] not [go]?
15. Who cut the rope? Jack [cut the rope].
16. Henry will be ten [years old] in June.
17. Solomon was wiser than she [is wise].
18. I bought the book at Ponder's [store].
19. [If it] please [you] lend me your knife.
20. The sun shines by day, the moon [shines] by night.

* "It" is the subject of "please".

EXERCISE LXVIII.

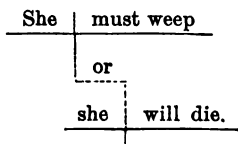
In the following elliptical sentences restore the words omitted, and tell whether they express ideas which were already expressed by other words in the sentence:

1. He rides when he can.
2. Love thy neighbor as thyself.
3. They enjoyed themselves while here.
4. I treated him as a friend.
5. You have known him longer than me.
6. You have known him longer than I.
7. Are you dumb? If not, speak.
8. That boy is more prudent than wise.
9. You are the one I came to see.
10. He is honorable but poor.
11. The Ethiopian can not change his skin, nor the leopard his spots.
12. Henry was in school this morning, but not this afternoon.
13. I was at my brother's yesterday.
14. This done, proceed with your story.
15. Please lend me your book.
16. Lucy is taller than Mary.
17. He has never seen the Louvre, but I have.
18. Who steals my purse steals trash.
19. He acts as if he were sick.
20. She put him off as long as possible.
21. Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematics, subtle; natural philosophy, deep; moral, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend.
22. Love looks not with the eyes, but with the mind;
And therefore is winged Cupid painted blind.

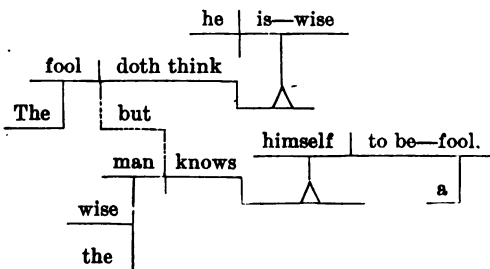
ANALYSIS OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

373. Observe how the members of compound sentences are connected in the following diagrams:

1. She must weep or she will die.



2. The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool.



Verbal Analysis.—1. "*She must weep or she will die*" is a compound declarative sentence, composed of two members expressing thoughts in alternation. "*She must weep*" is the first member, of which "*she*" is the subject and "*must weep*" is the predicate; "*she will die*" is the second member, of which "*she*" is the subject and "*will die*" is the predicate; "*or*" is the connective.

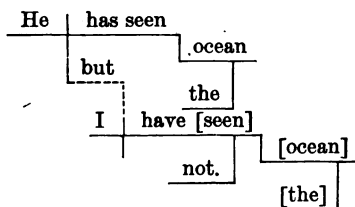
2. "*The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool*" is a compound declarative sentence, composed of two members expressing thoughts in opposition. "*The fool doth think he is wise*" is the first member, of which "*the fool*" is the complex subject, "*fool*," the simple subject, is modified by "*the*," a simple adjective word element; "*doth think he is wise*"

is the complex predicate of which "*doth think*" is the simple predicate modified by "*he is wise*," a simple objective clause element, of which "*he*" is the subject and "*is wise*" is the predicate, composed of "*is*," the copula, and "*wise*," the attribute complement: "*the wise man knows himself to be a fool*" is the second member, of which "*the wise man*" is the complex subject, "*man*," the simple subject, is modified by "*wise*," a simple adjective word element and "*wise man*" is modified by "*the*," a simple adjective word element; "*knows himself to be a fool*" is the complex predicate of the second member, of which "*knows*" is the simple predicate modified by "*himself to be a fool*," a simple objective clause phrase element, of which "*himself*" is the subject and "*to be a fool*," the complex predicate, of which "*to be*" is the copula, and "*fool*" is the attribute complement modified by "*a*," a simple adjective word element; "*but*" is the connective.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES.

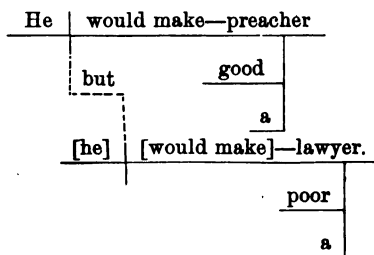
374. The following diagrams illustrate various constructions:

1. He has seen the ocean, but I have not.



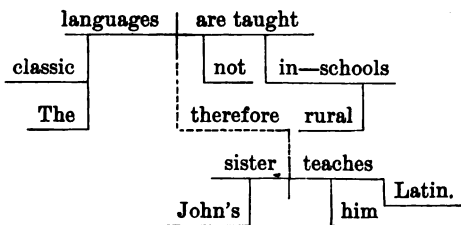
The omitted words are restored in brackets.

2. He would make a good preacher, but a poor lawyer.



"*Would make*" is copulative, and means "*would become*."

3. The classic languages are not taught in rural schools, therefore John's sister teaches him Latin.



In this sentence, "*him*" is the indirect object, and "*Latin*," the direct object. Sometimes in isolated sentences it is difficult to tell which the author of the sentence intended to be the direct object. In the sentence, "*She taught him Latin*," the mind may shift from one to the other. The emphasis always falls upon the direct object. If we wish to call attention to the pupil, the sentence will mean, "*She taught him in Latin*." If we wish to call attention to the subject, the sentence will mean, "*She taught Latin to him*."

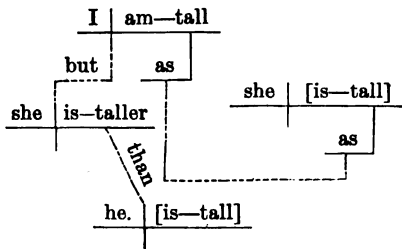
In sentences containing an indirect object, an idiomatic form is sometimes used for the passive voice. Study the three following sentences:

1. I gave him an apple.
2. An apple was given him.
3. He was given an apple.

Sentences (1) and (2) are regular and nothing difficult is found in them. Sentence (3) is an idiom, and therefore does not conform to the rules of grammar. Much has been said about the construction of the noun "*apple*." It is variously called "a retained object," "an adverbial objective," and a "noun without grammatical construction." But "*apple*" certainly names the thing that "*was given*." By substituting for the idiomatic form the grammatical form, we have the sentence, "To him was given an apple," in which "*apple*" is clearly the subject.

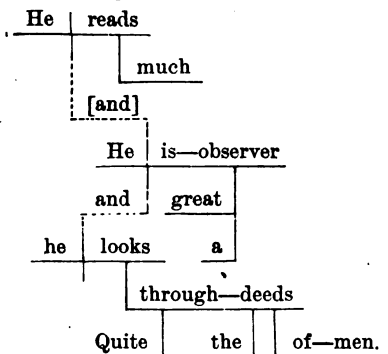
In the original form of the sentence, the indirect object "*him*" had no preposition placed before it. In order to make prominent the *receiver* of the gift, "*him*" was placed at the beginning of the sentence, then influenced by position, being placed immediately before the verb, it took on the nominative form "*he*," but "*he*" still represents the receiver of the gift, and not the thing that "*was given*." Use a personal pronoun instead of "*apple*," and notice the case in (3).

4. I am as tall as she, but she is taller than he.



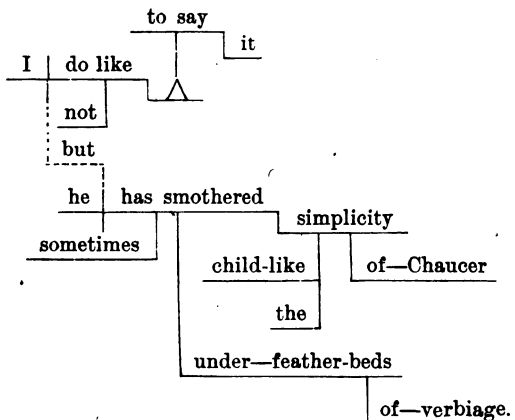
The first "*as*" is an adverb of degree, the second "*as*" is a conjunctive adverb.

5. He reads much;
He is a great observer, and he looks
Quite through the deeds of men.

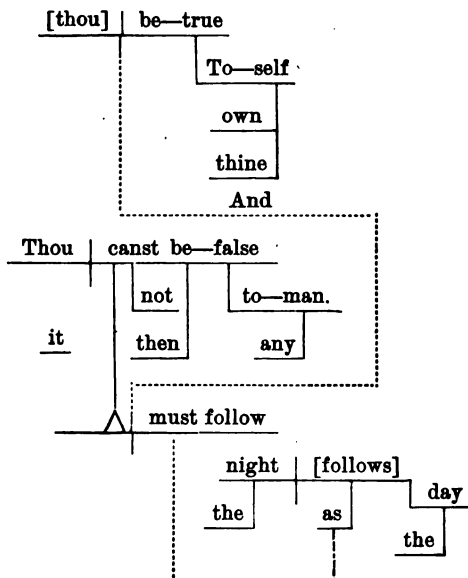


"Quite" is an adverb of degree, and limits the preposition "through."

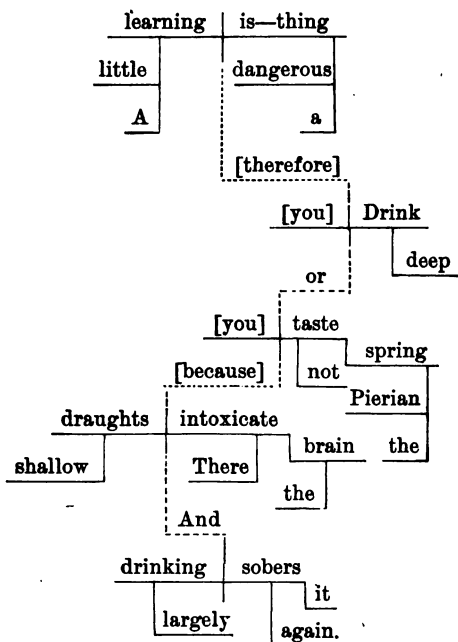
6. I do not like to say it, but he has sometimes smothered the child-like simplicity of Chaucer under feather-beds of verbiage.



7. To thine own self be true,
 And it must follow as the night the day,
 Thou canst not then be false to any man.



8. A little learning is a dangerous thing;
 Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring;
 There shallow draughts intoxicate the brain,
 And drinking largely sobers it again.



The conjunction should always be supplied to indicate the relation between the members which it connects.

EXERCISE LXIX.

Diagram and analyze the following sentences:

1. They toil not, neither do they spin.
2. It rained on Saturday, so we put off the game.
3. It is an honor for a man to cease from strife; but every fool will be meddling.
4. Many meet the gods, but few salute them.

5. Mirth should be the embroidery of conversation, but it should not be the web.
6. Be industrious, otherwise you can not expect to succeed.
7. We are told to remain, else we would go.
8. We are commanded to forgive our enemies; but we are nowhere commanded to forgive our friends.
9. A moral, sensible, and well-bred man
Will not affront me, and no other can.
10. He was my friend, faithful and just to me:
But Brutus says he was ambitious;
And Brutus is an honorable man.—Shakespeare.
11. Now to their mates the wild swans row,
By the day they swam apart,
And to the thicket wanders slow
The hind beside the hart.—Scott.
12. It was the schooner Hesperus
That sailed the wintry sea;
And the skipper had taken his little daughter,
To bear him company.—Longfellow.
13. To be sure, eyes are not so common as people think,
or poets would be plentier.—Lowell.
14. Divinity lies all about us, and culture is too hide-bound
to even suspect the fact.—Wm. James.
15. Beneath this stone my wife doth lie;
She's now at rest, and so am I.—Old Epitaph.
16. I see before me the gladiator lie;
He leans upon his hand—his manly brow
Consents to death, but conquers agony,
And his drooped head sinks gradually low.—Byron.
17. "Last night the moon had a golden ring,
And to-night no moon we see!"
The skipper he blew a whiff from his pipe,
And a scornful laugh laughed he.—Longfellow.
18. That moss-covered bucket I hail as a treasure;
For often, at noon, when returned from the field,
I found it the source of an exquisite pleasure,
The purest and sweetest that nature can yield.—Woodworth.
19. All nature is but art unknown to thee;
All chance, direction, which thou canst not see;
All discord, harmony not understood;
All partial evil, universal good.—Pope.
20. I know not where His islands lift
Their fronded palms in air;
I only know I can not drift
Beyond His love and care.—Whittier.

GENERAL EXERCISES.

375. An extensive list of well arranged and classified sentences is given here to assist the teacher in finding suitable work for class use. There may be found in this list every possible construction of all the parts of speech.

This list is, also, arranged for a review course. The pupils should parse all the italicized words. It will be observed that certain divisions are headed "Nouns," "Pronouns," etc., but that does not mean that *every* word in italics is a noun or a pronoun. It means that the larger part of them are nouns or pronouns, but some words are left to the pupil's judgment.

NOUNS.

I.

1. The *girl* went *home*.
2. *James* is a rich *man*.
3. The *boy* desired to leave the *room*.
4. *Henry* expects to be a *teacher*.
5. The *lady* being a *teacher* is no excuse for her *conduct*.
6. The *boy* took the *money* to the *bank*.
7. They desired the *boy* to be a *lawyer*.
8. The tree is one hundred *feet* high.

II.

1. *Henry*, prepare the exercise.
2. The *book*, was it lost?
3. The *house* being destroyed, we left.
4. The *drunkard*! is he here?
5. *John*, the *blacksmith*, sold the farm to William, the *carpenter*.
6. They stopped at *Henry's*, the *merchant*.
7. *Mary*, the *milliner*, being gone, the goods were not sold.
8. The man prepared the exercise, a *task* not usually accomplished.
9. Having ascended the mountain, a *perilous feat*, he rested.

III.

1. *Henry* is a reliable *boy*.
2. *Honesty* is said to be the best *policy*.
3. The *boy* being absent is no mistake.
4. His being a *lawyer* does not excuse him.
5. The man sold the *farm* to my *friend*.
6. We expected the *boy* to be an *orator*.
7. The lake is three hundred *feet* deep.
8. We did not speak of the *boy* coming so soon.

IV.

1. *Five times six* are thirty.
2. *6 plus 4 equals 10.*
3. There was a man from God, whose name was John.
4. The farm having been sold, we moved to the city.
5. The house having been destroyed could not be rebuilt.
6. The tree having been trimmed was unwise.
7. *8-3=5.*

PRONOUNS.

V.

1. James put James's hat on James's desk in James's room.
2. I will do my work if he will let me.
3. We will send him the money if he will aid us.
4. The man said that he would prepare the exercise for us if we would let him.

VI.

1. They said that they would take our property if we would let them.
2. The lady is beautiful, but unfortunately she knows it.
3. To oppose him may be right, but it is unpleasant for us.
4. Him to whom you referred has deceived us.
5. It was him and not me who did the work.
6. They spoke of John and I.

NOTE.—Correct Nos. 4, 5, and 6.

VII.

1. That man who took the book from the table whose lid is open, is the one of whom I spoke.
2. He said that that that that boy parsed is not that that that that man parsed.
3. He said that as many as would come should be aided.
4. He brought me such papers as I could read.
5. This is the same article as I sold.
6. The man purchased what he wanted.
7. That that that you used should have been which.

VIII.

1. He purchased what we sold because it was what he wanted.
2. We should not oppose what we do not understand, because it may be what is right.
3. What he suggested is what we did, for we thought it to be what should be done.
4. We collected what we wanted and sold what we did not need.
5. He took what fruit he wanted.
6. I tell thee what, Corporal Bardolph, I could tear her.

IX.

1. *What* he promised to do is *what* we expected him to do.
2. *What* he thinks you said is not *what* you think you said.
3. *What* is food for me is poison for him and *what* is food for him is poison for me.
4. He received *what* we left and took *what* he promised to give us.
5. *What* he suggested I opposed and *what* I suggested he opposed.
6. *What* we did was *what* was ordered to be done.
7. *What* prosperity he had was taken away.

X.

1. And *what* she did, *whatsoever* in *itself*, her doing seemed to justify the deed.
2. *Whatsoever* ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them.
3. I know *who* took the money.
4. I can not tell *who* went to the city.
5. He asked me *what* I wanted.
6. *What* did he take?
7. By *whom* was the money sent?
8. *What* paper has he?
9. *Which* did he take?
10. *Which* way did he go?
11. *He that hath* ears to hear, let *him* hear.

XI.

1. I know *who* will return.
2. He said *that* he knew *what* killed the man.
3. *What* did he send you?
4. *Which* did he offer?
5. He sold *what* property he had.
6. This book is *mine*, that *his*, the *others*, *theirs*.
7. I will do the work *myself*.
8. He said *that* he would remain by *himself*.
9. *That large white* house is very *beautiful*.

ADJECTIVES.

XII.

1. *That generous old* man has made many people *happy*.
2. He is the *most selfish* man I have seen.
3. That boy is *more prudent* than *wise*.
4. *Those rich* people are not *happy* because they are *envious*.
5. He that is *unjust*, let him be *unjust still*.
6. That girl is *still* when she is *alone*.
7. *Such a* man should be punished.

XIII.

1. *That beautiful farm is worth three thousand six hundred fifty dollars.*
2. *Those people were here a long time ago.*
3. *This is his book and nobody else's.*
4. *Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note.*
5. *He has been present many a time.*
6. *They helped each other in their work.*
7. *I will not destroy the city for ten's sake.*
8. *He looks bad and says that he feels sick.*
9. *He alone will do the work.*
10. *The box is square and the ball is round.*
11. *What a dust you make!*

CLAUSES.

XIV.

1. It is said that wisdom is better than gold.
2. What became of the man is not known.
3. The proposition, that he will return, has been denied.
4. The question, what shall be done with intemperance?
has been ably discussed.
5. The difficulty was that the man would not return.
6. The supposition was that the work was too difficult.
7. He dreamed that he had prepared his lesson.
8. We suggested that he should not go.
9. They were talking about who should commit the deed.
10. There is much discussion about what Italy will do.
11. It was to you that he spoke.

VERBS.

XV.

1. The boy *studies* the lesson.
2. We *have prepared* the exercise assigned.
3. He *has taken* the money to the bank.
4. That man *has been* here often.
5. The house *had been sold* before we *arrived*.
6. The lady *will buy* the house.
7. The man *will have sold* the farm by that time.
8. I *had rather be* a dog and bay the moon,
Than such a Roman.—Shakespeare.

XVI.

1. That man *will have been preparing* for his work before
we arrive.
2. It *is said* that Columbus discovered America.
3. It *was impossible* for him to return.

4. The work *will have been completed* before we reach the city.
5. He *has been accomplishing* a great work.
6. He *can prepare* the exercise if he will.
7. That work *will have been accomplished*.
8. If it *rains* I will not go.
9. If it *rain* I will not go.
10. The house *was taken possession of* by its owner.

INFINITIVES.

XVII.

1. *It was impossible for him to remain*.
2. We desire *him to return* home.
3. We expected *them to be lawyers*.
4. The lady came to school to *begin to study to learn to be a teacher*.
5. They desired time to *study*.
6. His desire to *improve* was gratified.

XVIII.

1. *It was unjust for him to neglect* the duty assigned.
2. It is time for *him to arrive*.
3. We supposed *him to be an honest man*.
4. Those who came to *scoff* remained to *pray*.
5. *To be honest* with you, I was in error.
6. He that lacks time to *mourn* lacks time to *mend*.

XIX.

1. They declared *him to be a blacksmith*.
2. *For him to have accomplished* such a task seems impossible.
3. His attempt to *rescue* his friend was fatal.
4. *To save* is to *earn*.
5. The prisoner wanted time to *state* his case.
6. That man is not large enough to *do* the work.
7. The boy is anxious to *learn*.
8. *To do right* is to *do what* is ordered to be done.
9. He thought *it to be* his duty to *deceive* us.

XX.

1. The Son of man came to *seek* and to *save*.
2. Is it lawful for us to *give* tribute to Caesar?
3. *It took Rome* three hundred years to *die*.
4. Penmanship, to *write* correctly, is taught.
5. Let me ask you to *remain*.
6. Please *pass* me the book.
7. I compelled *him to leave* the room.

XXI.

1. The boys thought *to study to be to read* the exercise.
2. *To recite* having been commanded, we began *preparing* for the work.
3. I was about *to write* you.
4. I desire *to have him speak*.
5. The farm is *to be sold* and the house is *to be rented* to-day.
6. He has books *to sell*.
7. *Studying* is not *reciting*.
8. We began *preparing* the lesson *assigned*.
9. I *had as lief* not *be as live* to be
In awe of such a thing as I myself.—Shakespeare.

PARTICIPLES.

XXII.

1. By *working* faithfully, we succeed in *overcoming* every difficulty.
2. *Having finished* the lesson *assigned*, we began *preparing* another.
3. *Having accomplished* the work, we went home.
4. The criminal *being deprived* of his liberty, repented.
5. The paper *having been lost*, the exercise *prepared* was not *recited*.
6. The book *having been taken* was not returned.
7. The horse *running away* is a mistake.
8. *Being punished* for his guilt, he left.

XXIII.

1. The general *having mounted* his horse, commanded the soldiers *to advance*.
2. The letter *having been intercepted*, the whole plot was *discovered*.
3. The gentleman *seeing* me spoke of *having settled* the affair.
4. *Having conquered* the enemy, the army retired.
5. *Having completed* the work *allotted*, we began our task which was *cutting* wood.
6. The *preparing* of such an exercise is more difficult than the *reciting* of it.
7. The boy came *stumbling* into the room and went *whistling* to his seat.
8. The *rising* sun shone on the *sparkling* waters.

XXIV.

1. *Toiling,—rejoicing,—sorrowing*,
Onward through life he goes;
Each morning sees some task *begin*,
Each evening sees it *close*;
Something *attempted*, something *done*.
Has earned a night's repose.—Longfellow.

2. *Having packed* his trunk, he was ready to depart.
3. The *passing* of the act was not so severe as the *enforcing* of it.
4. The *singing* bird flew through the air.
5. The bird *singing*, flew through the air.
6. *Having opened* the door, the man entered and began his work which *was assorting* papers.
7. He came *unbidden* and mingled in pleasures *undefined*.
8. The *driving* storm came *rushing* upon us and we went *screaming* into the room.
9. He died *loved* by all.
10. The water *is boiling* hot.

PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, ETC.

XXV.

1. That man *by* the window came *from* Chicago to New York.
2. That flock *of* sheep should be *on* the farm *of* my brother.
3. The house *by* the river was nearly destroyed *by* the storm.
4. The man went *with* his friend and they cut the grass *with* a scythe.
5. The house *of* my friend stands *on* the hill *over beyond* the mountain near the city.
6. *As* a mechanic he is successful.
7. They divided the books *between* the two boys.
8. He differs *with* me *from* you.

XXVI.

1. *When* he arrives at the place *where* my brother is, he will be aided *if* found worthy.
2. *While* he was yet talking his voice trembled with emotion.
3. *Since* the party came, we must aid him *if* he will permit.
4. The boy runs *like* a deer.
5. I seem to have been only *like* a boy.
6. He is *like* his father.
7. He *likes* to study grammar.
8. *As* he is coming, I will go.
9. The lady *and* the gentleman have returned
10. Henry *or* Mary will go.
11. The boy came to school *but* the girl went to the city.
12. *Whence* he came I can not tell.
13. *If* he stops at the house *where* my friend lives he will be welcomed.

XXVII.

1. They said that *as* many *as* came should be pardoned.
2. This is the same article *as* I sold.
3. They brought me such fruit *as* I could eat.

4. The lady is *as* tall *as* her friend.
5. The boy works *as* well *as* studies.
6. I am *as* ever your friend.
7. *As* a lawyer he is successful, but *as* a teacher he is a failure.
8. He looks *as* if he were dishonest.
9. *As* he is here I will go.
10. A noun is a name; *as*, Mary, book, desk, etc.
11. *Inasmuch as* he has come to see me I will remain.

XXVIII.

1. *What* by intrigue and *what* by bribery, he accomplished his object.
2. Maud Muller, on a summer's day,
Raked the meadow *sweet* with hay.
3. And her modest answer and graceful air
Show her *wise* and *good as* she is fair.
4. He knows better than *to trust* you.
5. It is oh! *to be* a slave,
Along with the barbarous Turk,
Where woman has never a soul *to save*,
If this is Christian work.—Thomas Hood.
6. We should avoid *injuring* the feelings of others.
7. The *cackling* of geese saved Rome.
8. Good *reading* aloud is a rare accomplishment.
9. The natives came *crowding* around.
10. The city lies *sleeping*.
11. He stood *terrified*.
12. He stood *firm*.
13. The water runs *smooth*.
14. The water looks *smooth*.
15. I can not reach so *high*.
16. The tower stands *high* in the air.
17. *Gad*, a troop shall overcome him.
18. Shut the door, if *you* please.
19. Let beeves and homebred kine partake
The sweets of Burn-mill meadow;
The *swan* on still St. Mary's Lake
Float double, swan and shadow!
We will not see them; will not go
To-day, nor yet to-morrow;
Enough, if in our hearts we know
There's such a place as Yarrow.—Wordsworth.

EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS.**XXIX.**

1. The large birds fly swiftly.
2. The very large birds fly very swiftly.
3. The girl came to school.
4. The beautiful snow fell softly on the roof.
5. Among the stones I stood a stone.
6. A soft answer often saves hard knocks.

XXX.

1. That good man works very faithfully.
2. The large house on the hill was destroyed by the storm.
3. The book on the table was brought from the office.
4. The farm of my friend was sold to the merchant.
5. James, the banker, went to the city.
6. Henry, the carpenter, purchased the house in the city.
7. Every home should be quarantined against gossip.

XXXI.

1. The study of the natural sciences goes hand in hand with the culture of the imagination.
2. Henry, the orator, went to see James, the banker.
3. Civility is the result of good sense.
4. Clouds are collections of vapor in the air.
5. The fate of that man is deplorable.
6. Paul the apostle was a wise man.
7. Napoleon died a prisoner at St. Helena.
8. Widow's weeds do not always take root in the heart.

XXXII.

1. That man is usually a happy person.
2. The boy who studies faithfully recites well.
3. The man who works honestly will be happy.
4. That large house which stands on the hill was built by my friend, the merchant.
5. He who would accomplish a good work in life must be faithful.
6. The house which he sold stands on the hill beyond the river.

XXXIII

1. Character carries with it an influence that commands the respect of mankind.
2. New knowledge which we discover for ourselves always gives pleasure.
3. He who laughs at crooked men should walk very straight.
4. China has many mountains the tops of which are almost always covered with snow.

5. To him who in the love of nature holds communion with her visible forms, she speaks a various language.

6. The children sat by the window that opened upon the veranda which was at the rear of the house.

XXXIV.

1. The house which stood on the bank of the river which flows through the city, was destroyed by the storm yesterday.

2. The beautiful book which was left on the table which stands by the window, has been lost.

3. The work which a person can do in the short time allotted to him is not very great.

4. He who seeks that wisdom which cometh from above acts wisely.

5. The property which was sold to the lady who lives in the city was owned by my friend.

XXXV.

1. They visited the city where Columbus was born.

8. The birds return when spring comes.

3. We stood upon the rugged rocks when the long day was nearly done.

4. They looked down from the mountains into the valley where cultivated fields met their view on every side.

5. When we arrived at the place where the house in which he had formerly lived was, he trembled with emotion.

6. When we came to the house where the officer to whom you referred was stationed, we stopped to receive orders.

XXXVI.

1. When we see an object we form a mental perception of it.

2. Though he may lose his life he will not lose his honor.

3. Since the work has been completed the mechanic should have the pay which was promised.

4. Because he did not do the work which had been assigned to him, his father gave him no aid.

5. If a man empties his purse into his head no one can take it from him.

6. When he reaches the place where my friend is, he will aid him if he so desires.

XXXVII.

1. The horses and the cattle drank freely of the pure water.

2. A little child swung loosely in a hammock and sang a pretty song.

3. A soldier's widow and his only child lived in a little hut near the village and were almost forgotten.

4. We saw the man and the boy yesterday.

5. We heard the moaning of the wind and the pattering of the rain.

6. The man who went to the country and the boy who went to the city have returned.

XXXVIII.

1. The dog that was lost wandered about the streets and watched for his master.
2. Paris, which is a most beautiful city, is built on both sides of the Seine and has many bridges.
3. The boy who went to school and who completed the course of study has accepted a good position.
4. The rains descended and the floods came.
5. The heavens declare the glory of God and the firmament showeth His handiwork.
6. The door was opened softly and the little girl peeped into the room, but she soon disappeared again.

XXXIX.

1. Office confers no favor on a man who is worthy of it and it disgraces every man who is not worthy of it.
2. He who would be wise must walk with those who are wise, but the companions of fools shall fail.
3. The vine still clings to the moldering wall,
But at every gust the dead leaves fall,
And the days are dark and dreary.
4. Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime,
And, departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time.
5. The man who conquers his temper controls his greatest enemy, but he who gives this no care will suffer.

XL.

1. It was unjust for him to oppose us.
2. It will be impossible for me to remain.
3. We expected the boy to return home this morning.
4. We desired his friend to be a lawyer.
5. The man went to the city to prepare for his work.
6. His desire to study was gratified.
7. Let us be content in work to do the thing we can and not presume to fret because it is little.
8. True charity does not stop to hunt the small change.

XLI.

1. We desire the man to whom you referred to do the work to-day.
2. They expected him to whom you spoke to prepare the exercise which had been assigned.
3. It was imprudent for him to whom you sent the money to remain away longer.
4. It is time for us to begin preparing the lesson.
5. We thought it to be our day to oppose the measure which had been suggested.
6. To be or not to be, that is the question.
7. One of his favorite maxims was, that the only way to keep a secret is never to let any one suspect that you have one.

XLII.

1. The lesson having been recited, we began preparing another exercise.
2. The enemy having been conquered, the general gave orders to return home.
3. The house having been destroyed could not be rebuilt.
4. The ship landing so soon is a mistake.
5. Having completed the task assigned, we went to our rooms.
6. Having collected the money due he left the city.
7. The death of Socrates, peacefully philosophizing with his friends, is the most pleasant that could be desired.

XLIII.

1. It is said that the man will not return.
2. We supposed that the house would be sold.
3. The statement, that he is an orator, has been denied.
4. The difficulty is, that he can not prepare the exercise.
5. There has been much discussion about who wrote the first book.
6. Fine feathers do not make fine birds, but they do make expensive ones.

XLIV.

1. In politics it is a sure law that every excess shall generate its opposite, nor does he deserve the name of statesman who strikes a blow without fully calculating the effect of the rebound.
2. "I think, boys," said the schoolmaster, "that I shall give you an extra half-holiday this afternoon."
3. The suggestion, that the officer can capture the man who took the money, seems incredible.
4. The crying sin of all governments is that they meddle injuriously with human affairs.
5. The boy was right in that he could not prepare the exercise.

XLV.

1. Think for thyself—one good idea,
But known to be thine own,
Is better than a thousand gleaned
From fields by others sown.—Wilson.
2. The boy closed the shutters which darkened the room.
3. The man moved to the city, a step which he will regret.
4. The house lay low in the valley.
5. No ax had leveled the giant progeny of the crowded groves, in which the fantastic forms of withered limbs, that had been blasted and riven by lightning, contrasted strangely with the verdant freshness of a younger growth of branches.—Bancroft.

XLVI.

1. Not many generations ago where you now sit encircled with all that exalts and embellishes civilized life, the rank thistle nodded in the wind and the wild fox dug his hole unscared.
2. It is the curse of kings to be attended
By slaves that take their humors for a warrant
To break within the bloody house of life,
And on the winking of authority,
To understand a law.—Shakespeare.
3. I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the sea-shore, and diverting myself in now and then finding a smoother pebble or a prettier shell than ordinary, whilst the whole ocean of truth lay undiscovered before me.—Newton.
4. Mind is peculiar in that it not only acts but knows that it acts.—Baker.

XLVII.

1. Of all our intellectual pursuits the study of mathematical science is the one whose utility as a mental exercise has been peremptorily denied by the greatest number of the most competent judges, and the arguments on which this opinion is established have hitherto been evaded rather than opposed.
2. When Freedom, from her mountain height,
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night
And set the stars of glory there.—Drake.
3. The swan on still St. Mary's Lake
Float double, swan and shadow.—Wordsworth.
4. Multitudes of little floating clouds,
Ere we who saw, of change, were conscious, pierced
Through their ethereal texture, had become
Vivid as fire.—Wordsworth.
5. The more I see of him the better I like him.

XLVIII.

1. And God said, Let there be light; and there was light.—Bible.
2. Rock of ages cleft for me,
Let me hide myself in thee;
Let the water and the blood,
From thy wounded side which flow'd,
Be of sin a double cure,
Save from wrath and make me pure.—Toplady.
3. My teacher may rightfully claim to have made me whatever I may honestly judge myself to have become; and I thankfully acknowledge myself to be made as much of as such materials as I consist of can be.

4. James D. Dana of Yale College, who is Professor of Natural History, wrote many volumes after he returned from his voyage around the world.

XLIX.

1. Hypocrisy is a sort of homage that vice pays to virtue.
2. My very chains and I grew friends,
So much a long communion tends
To make us what we are; even I
Regained my freedom with a sigh.—Byron.
3. O wad some Pow'r the giftie gie us
To see oursel's as ithers see us!—Burns. ns.
4. Sam Jones said, "I heard Sam Small say, 'All attempts to defame my character have failed.'"
5. A thousand flowers enchant the gale
With perfume sweet as love's first kiss.
6. Seamen, with the self-same gale
Will several different courses sail.
7. The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars,
But in ourselves, that we are underlings.
8. The bird that sings on highest wing
Builds on the ground her lowly nest.

L.

1. A ring of mine he has worth forty ducats.
2. Let observation, with extended view,
Survey mankind from China to Peru.
3. Strange that such difference should be
'Twix't tweedledum and tweedledee.
4. Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund Day
Stands tiptoe on the misty mountain's top.
5. Death's face seems cold and stern when he is sent to
summon those we love.
6. Here rests his head upon the lap of Earth,
A Youth to Fortune, and to Fame unknown.—Gray.
7. Heaven is above all yet; there sits a Judge
That no king can corrupt.—Shakespeare.
8. There is One above
Sways the harmonious mystery of the world
Better than prime ministers.—Bulwer.

CHAPTER XVIII.

CAPITALIZATION AND PUNCTUATION.

376. A brief summary of the rules for the use of capital letters and punctuation marks is added here for reference mainly. Following are the rules, most commonly observed by the best writers, for the use of—

CAPITALS.

A capital letter should begin :

1. The first word of every sentence.
2. The first word of every line of poetry.
3. The first word of every direct quotation.
4. All proper nouns and proper adjectives.
5. The names of things vividly personified.
6. All words used as titles of honor.
7. The principal words in headings, or titles of books.
8. All abbreviations of proper nouns.
9. The names of the Deity, and sometimes the pronouns referring to the Deity.
10. A common noun when substituted for a proper noun; as,

(1) They were driving in the Park (Lincoln Park).

(2) I had a letter from Mother to-day.

11. Phrases or clauses separately numbered and formally arranged. Notice these rules for capitals.

12. The words *I* and *O* should be capitals.

The pupils should illustrate each of the foregoing rules.

PUNCTUATION.

377. Punctuation treats of the use of points, or marks, in dividing written composition. The chief use of punctuation is to separate discourse into sentences, and sentences into parts, in such a manner as will best show the relation of these parts to one another.

The marks used to separate discourse into sentences, are called **terminal marks**. There are three kinds of terminal marks: the **period** (.), the **interrogation point** (?), and the **exclamation point** (!).

THE PERIOD.

378. A **period** should be placed:

1. After each declarative sentence; as,

Gold is heavy.

2. After each imperative sentence; as,

Come to me.

3. After each figure or letter used in numbering.

Observe the numbering of these statements.

4. After each abbreviation.

THE INTERROGATION POINT.

379. An **interrogation point** should be placed:

1. After each direct question; as,

(1) Am I my brother's keeper?

(2) "Where are you going?" he said.

2. In parentheses after a word to indicate uncertainty; as,

In the year 1340(?) Chaucer was born.

THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

380. An **exclamation point** should be placed:

1. After each exclamatory sentence or clause; as,

(1) Oh, what a fall was there!

(2) Hamlet said, "What a piece of work is man!"

2. After an interjection, or other exclamatory words; as,

(1) Alas! when evil men are strong,

No life is good, no life is long.

(2) Peace! Peace! Why dost thou lament thy fate?

3. In parentheses after a word to indicate a sneer; as,

He is so generous (!) to every one.

This use is not in good taste, and should be discouraged.

THE COMMA.

381. The tendency seems to be to use no more commas than are necessary to make the meaning clear. The best writers generally observe, however, the following rules:

A comma should be used:

1. To set off an appositive modifier which is not restrictive; as,

(1) Dickens, the great novelist, was an Englishman.

(2) The children, coming home from school, look in at the open door.

(3) The apple blossom, which is a kind of rose, is very beautiful.

(4) Aqua fortis, or nitric acid, corrodes copper.

2. To set off expressions used independently; as,

(1) George, close your book.

(2) To be honest with you, I was in error.

(3) Henry having lost the ball, the game ended.

(4) The stars, they shall shine forever.

3. To set off an inverted phrase or clause; as,

(1) On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

(2) In dreams, through camp and court, he bore
The trophies of a conqueror.

4. To set off a direct quotation not formally introduced; as,

He said, "I will arise and go to my father."

In a direct quotation the words of another are repeated exactly as they were written or spoken; as,

(1) He said, "I will do my own work."

(2) My friend wrote, "I am going to Mexico this winter."

In an **indirect quotation** the words of another are given as reported; as,

(1) He said *that he would do his own work.*

(2) My friend wrote *that he was going to Mexico this winter.*

Indirect quotations are called **indirect discourse**.

Observe the following differences between **direct and indirect quotations**:

(1) A direct quotation is enclosed by quotation marks, and it begins with a capital letter, unless the quotation is a fragment of a sentence.

(2) An indirect quotation is not enclosed by quotation marks, does not begin with a capital letter, and is introduced by the word *that*. The first person is changed to the third, and the present tense of the verb is changed to the past when the verb in the leading clause is in the past tense.

5. To set off the clause used as attribute complement; as,

(1) A characteristic of Emerson is, that he utters his greatest truths from intuition.

(2) The belief of astronomers is, that the stars are suns.

6. To separate a series of elements having the same construction, unless all the conjunctions are expressed; as,

(1) It was a bright, calm, cold night.

(2) One should be polite in the home, in the school, and on the streets.

(3) The men who lived so nobly, who fought so bravely, who died so gloriously, were all our brothers.

7. To separate the members of a compound sentence; as,

(1) Few and short were the prayers we said,
And we spoke not a word of sorrow.

(2) Man has his will, but woman has her way.

(3) He is a studious boy, or his teacher is mistaken.

(4) The ground is wet, therefore it has rained.

8. To indicate the omission of words; as,

- (1) Are you dumb? If not, speak.
- (2) The sun shines by day; the moon, by night.

9. After *as*, *namely*, etc., introducing illustrations; as,

- (1) A noun is a name; as, Mary, book, etc.
- (2) The Teutonic invaders belonged to three tribes; namely, the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles.

10. When it is needed to prevent ambiguity; as,

- (1) I awoke, and called my brother.
- (2) The engineers that refused to submit to the will of their employers, were discharged.

THE SEMICOLON.

382. The **semicolon** is used to separate:

1. The members of a compound sentence when the conjunction is omitted; as,

- (1) Dare to be true; nothing can need a lie.
- (2) The king has cured me; I humbly thank his grace.

If the conjunction is supplied, usually, the comma is sufficient; as,

- (1) Dare to be true, for nothing can need a lie.
- (2) The king has cured me, and I humbly thank his grace.

2. The members of a compound sentence when they themselves are divided by the comma; as,

- (1) Having detained you so long already, I shall not trespass longer upon your patience; but, before concluding, I wish you to observe this truth.
- (2) Holmes is, like Lowell, a humorist; but, like Lowell, he knows how to be earnest, serious, and even pathetic.

3. Clauses which have a common dependence upon another clause; as,

We can almost fancy that we are visiting him [Milton] in his small lodging; that we see him sitting at the old organ

beneath the faded green hangings; that we can catch the quick twinkle in his eyes, rolling in vain to find the day; that we are reading in the lines of his noble countenance the proud and mournful history of his glory and his affliction.—Macaulay.

4. From the preceding statement, the words *as*, *namely*, *to wit*, *i. e.*, and *that is*, when they introduce a series of examples or illustrations; as,

(1) The Greeks invented the three orders of architecture; that is, the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian.

(2) The American flag consists of three colors; namely, red, white, and blue.

(3) A noun is a name; as, Cora, tree, etc.

THE COLON.

383. The colon should be placed:

1. Between the members of a compound sentence when they themselves are divided by the semicolon; as,

His promises were, as he then was, mighty;
But his performance, as he is now, nothing:
Of his own body he was ill, and gave
The clergy ill example.—Shakespeare.

2. Before a direct quotation or other matter formally introduced; as,

(1) This is a wise precept: "Know thyself."

(2) The infinitive has three uses:

(a) As a noun.

(b) As an adjective.

(c) As an adverb.

THE DASH.

384. The dash is used:

1. To indicate a sudden change in thought or construction; as,

"He had no malice in his mind—
No ruffles on his shirt."

2. To indicate omission; as,

(1) Mrs. B— visited us yesterday.

(2) Read pages 3—21

3. Instead of commas or marks of parenthesis, to enclose parenthetical expressions; as,

Mr. Johnson—so I have been told—is a graduate of Oxford.

4. To indicate a summing-up; as,

Relatives, friends, home,—all are gone.

5. With a comma, to follow a formal address; as,

Dear Mother,—

MARKS OF PARENTHESIS.

385. Marks of parenthesis are used to enclose what has no essential connection with the rest of the sentence; as,

If we exercise right principles (and we can not have them unless we exercise them), they must be perpetually on the increase.

QUOTATION MARKS.

386. Quotation marks are used to enclose a copied word or passage. If the quotation contains a quotation, the latter should be enclosed in single marks; as,

The minister said, "I would like to have seen David, when Nathan said to him: 'Thou art the man.'"

BRACKETS.

387. Brackets are used to enclose what is inserted by way of correction or explanation; as,

They [the Puritans] came direct from Holland.

THE APOSTROPHE.

388. The apostrophe is used:

1. In forming the possessive case of nouns; as,

This is John's book.

2. To mark the omission of letters; as,

He doesn't say *aren't* for *are not*.

3. In the pluralizing of letters, figures, etc.; as,
q's, x's, i's.

THE HYPHEN.

389. The **hyphen** is used :

1. To join the parts of compound words; as,

The Anglo-Saxons lived in England.

2. To separate the syllables of a word; as,

cog-no-men.

THE CARET.

390. The **caret** is used to indicate omissions; as,

I have visited the ^{scenes} of my childhood.

^

EXERCISE LXX.

In the following selections, find illustrations of the rules for the use of the various punctuation marks, and show how the marks help to make clear the author's meaning.

SELECTIONS.

These extracts are put here mainly for thought study. They should be studied as literature. The pupils should read the selections thoughtfully, giving attention to capital letters, punctuation marks, and sentence structure. The author's thought and the means employed to express it are the two essential elements in literature.

The relation of language study to thought study is set forth in the first selection.

1. All grammatical studies require a twofold attitude of the mind, one toward the sign and one toward the signification; the shape of a letter or the form of a word or the peculiarity of a vocal utterance,—these must be attended to; but

they must be at once subordinated to the significance of the hidden thought which has become revealed by the sign or utterance.—W. T. Harris.

2. I like the boy who, when his father thought
To elip his morning nap by hackneyed praise
Of vagrant worm by early songster caught,
Cried, "Served him right! 'tis not at all surprising;
The worm was punished, sir, for early rising."—Saxe.

3. When I consider how my light is spent
Ere half my days, in this dark world and wide,
And that one talent, which is death to hide,
Lodged with me useless, though my soul more bent
To serve therewith my Maker, and present
My true account, lest he, returning, chide,—
"Doth God exact day-labor, light denied?"
I fondly ask: but Patience, to prevent
That murmur, soon replies, "God doth not need
Either man's work or his own gifts; who best
Bear his mild yoke, they serve him best: his state
Is kingly; thousands at his bidding speed,
And post o'er land and ocean without rest;
They also serve who only stand and wait."
—Milton; Sonnet on his Blindness.

THE ESSENTIAL QUESTION.

4. How to live?—that is the essential question for us. Not how to live in the mere material sense only, but in the widest sense. The general problem which comprehends every special problem is—the right ruling of conduct in all directions under all circumstances. In what way to treat the body; in what way to treat the mind; in what way to manage our affairs; in what way to bring up a family; in what way to behave as a citizen; in what way to utilize all those sources of happiness which nature supplies—how to use all our faculties to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others—how to live completely? And this being the great thing needful for us to learn, is, by consequence, the great thing which education has to teach. To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging of an educational course is, to judge in what degree it discharges such function.—Herbert Spencer.

AN EDUCATED MAN.

5. That man, I think, has had a liberal education who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work

that, as a mechanism, it is capable of; whose intellect is a clear, cold, logic engine, with all its parts of equal strength, and in smooth working order; ready, like a steam engine, to be turned to any kind of work, and spin the gossamers as well as forge the anchors of the mind; whose mind is stored with a knowledge of the great and fundamental truths of Nature and of the laws of her operations; one who, no stunted ascetic, is full of life and fire, but whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will, the servant of a tender conscience; who has learned to love all beauty, whether of Nature or of art, to hate all vileness, and to respect others as himself.—Thomas H. Huxley.

POLONIUS'S ADVICE TO LAERTES.

6. And these few precepts in thy memory
 See thou character. Give thy thoughts no tongue,
 Nor any unproportion'd thought his act.
 Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar.
 Those friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
 Grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel;
 But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
 Of each new-hatch'd, unfledged comrade. Beware
 Of entrance to a quarrel, but being in,
 Bear't that the opposed may be aware of thee.
 Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice;
 Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgment.
 Costly thy habit as thy purse can buy,
 But not express'd in fancy; rich, not gaudy;
 For the apparel oft proclaims the man,
 And they in France of the best rank and station
 Are of a most select and generous chief in that.
 Neither a borrower nor a lender be;
 For loan oft loses both itself and friend,
 And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.
 This above all: to thine own self be true,
 And it must follow, as the night the day,
 Thou canst not then be false to any man.
 Farewell: my blessing season this in thee.—Shakespeare.

WOLSEY'S ADVICE TO CROMWELL.

7. Cromwell, I did not think to shed a tear,
 In all my miseries; but thou hast forced me,
 Out of thy honest truth, to play the woman.
 Let's dry our eyes: and thus far hear me, Cromwell,
 And—when I am forgotten, as I shall be,
 And sleep in dull cold marble, where no mention
 Of me more must be heard of—say I taught thee;
 Say, Wolsey—that once trod the ways of glory,
 And sounded all the depths and shoals of honor—

Found thee a way, out of his wreck, to rise in;
 A sure and safe one, though thy master missed it;
 Mark but my fall, and that that ruined me—
 Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition:
 By that sin fell the angels; how can man, then,
 The image of his Maker, hope to win by it?
 Love thyself last; cherish those hearts that hate thee;
 Corruption wins not more than honesty.
 Still in thy right hand carry gentle peace,
 To silence envious tongues. Be just, and fear not:
 Let all the ends thou aim'st at be thy country's,
 Thy God's and truth's, then if thou fall'st, O Cromwell!
 Thou fall'st a blessed martyr.
 Serve the king; and,—pr'y thee, lead me in:
 There take an inventory of all I have,
 To the last penny; 't is the king's; my robe,
 And my integrity to heaven, is all
 I dare now call mine own. O Cromwell, Cromwell!
 Had I but served my God with half the zeal
 I served my king, he would not in mine age
 Have left me naked to mine enemies.—Shakespeare.

A SONNET.

8. The world is too much with us: late and soon,
 Getting and spending, we lay waste our powers;
 Little we see in Nature that is ours;
 We have given our hearts away, a sordid boon!
 The Sea bares her bosom to the moon;
 The winds that will be howling at all hours,
 And are up-gathered now like sleeping flowers;
 For this, for everything, we are out of tune;
 It moves us not. Great God! I'd rather be
 A pagan suckled in a creed outworn;
 So might I, standing on this pleasant lea,
 Have glimpses that would make me less forlorn;
 Have sight of Proteus rising from the sea;
 Or hear old Triton blow his wreathed horn.—Words-
 worth.

OF STUDIES.

9. Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability. Their chief use for delight is in privateness and retiring; for ornament, is in discourse; and for ability, is in the judgment and disposition of business: for expert men can execute and perhaps judge of particulars, one by one; but the general counsels, and the plots and marshaling of affairs, come best from those that are learned. To spend too much time in studies, is sloth; to use them too much for ornament, is affectation; to make judgment wholly by their rules, is the humor of a scholar; they perfect nature, and are perfected by expe-

rience: for natural abilities are like natural plants, that need pruning by study; and studies themselves do give forth directions too much at large, except they be bounded in by experience. Crafty men condemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them: for they teach not their own use; but that is a wisdom without them and above them, won by observation. Read, not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously; and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention. Some books also may be read by deputy, and extracts made of them by others; but that would be only in the less important arguments, and the meaner sort of books; else distilled books are, like common distilled waters, flashy things. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man; and therefore, if a man write little, he had need have a great memory; if he confer little, he had need have a present wit; and if he read little, he had need have much cunning, to seem to know that he doth not. Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematics, subtle; natural philosophy, deep; moral, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend: nay, there is no stand or impediment in the wit, but may be wrought out by fit studies: like as diseases of the body may have appropriate exercises,—bowling is good for the stone and reins, shooting for the lungs and breast, gentle walking for the stomach, riding for the head and the like;—so, if a man's wit be wandering, let him study the mathematics, for in demonstrations, if his wit be called away never so little, he must begin again; if his wit be not apt to distinguish or find differences, let him study the schoolmen, for they are *cymini sectores*; if he be not apt to beat over matters, and to call up one thing to prove and illustrate another, let him study the lawyer's cases: so every defect of the mind may have a special receipt.—Bacon.

HECTOR AND ANDROMACHE.

10. "Too daring prince! ah, whither dost thou run?
 Ah, too forgetful of thy wife and son!
 And think'st thou not how wretched we shall be
 A widow I, a helpless orphan he?
 For such courage length of life denies,
 And thou must fall, thy virtue's sacrifice.
 Greece, in her single heroes strove in vain;
 Now hosts oppose thee, and thou must be slain.—
 Oh, grant me, gods, ere Hector meets his doom,
 All I can ask of Heaven, an early tomb!
 So shall my days in one sad tenor run,
 And end with sorrows as they first begun.

No parent now remains my griefs to share,
No father's aid, no mother's tender care.
The fierce Achilles wrapt our walls in fire,
Laid Thebe waste, and slew my warlike sire!
His fate compassion in the victor bred;
Stern as he was, he yet revered the dead,
His radiant arms preserved from hostile spoil,
And laid him decent on the funeral pile;
Then raised a mountain where his bones were burned;
The mountain nymphs the rural tomb adorned;
Jove's sylvan daughters bade their elms bestow
A barren shade, and in his honor grow.

"By the same arm my seven brave brothers fell;
In one sad day beheld the gates of hell;
while the fat herds and the snowy flocks they fed,
Amid their fields the hapless heroes bled!
My mother lived to wear the victor's bands,
The queen of Hippoplacia's sylvan lands;
Redeemed too late, she scarce beheld again
Her pleasing empire and her native plain.
When ah! oppressed by life-consuming woe,
She fell a victim to Diana's bow.

"Yet while my Hector still survives, I see
My father, mother, brethren, all in thee.
Alas! my parents, brothers, kindred, all
Once more will perish, if my Hector fall;
Thy wife, thy infant, in thy danger share;
Oh, prove a husband's and a father's care!
That quarter most the skilful Greeks annoy,
Where yon wild fig trees join the walls of Troy;
Thou, from this tower defend the important post;
There Agamemnon points his dreadful host;
That pass Tydides, Ajax, strive to gain,
And there the vengeful Spartan fires his train.
Thrice our bold foes the fierce attack have given,
Or led by hopes, or dictated from heaven.
Let others in the fields their arms employ,
But stay my Hector here, and guard his Troy."

The chief replied: "That post shall be my care.
Not that alone, but all the works of war.
How would the sons of Troy, in arms renowned,
And Troy's proud dames, whose garments sweep the
ground,

Attain the luster of my former name,
Should Hector basely quit the field of fame?
My early youth was bred to martial pains,
My soul impels me to the embattled plains!
Let me be foremost to defend the throne,
And guard my father's glories, and my own.

"Yet come it will, the day decreed by fates!
(How my heart trembles while my tongue relates!)
The day when thou, imperial Troy! must bend,
And see thy warriors fall, thy glories end.
And yet no dire presage so wounds my mind,—
My mother's death, the ruin of my kind,
Not Priam's hoary hairs defiled with gore,
Not all my brothers gasping on the shore,—
As thine, Andromache! Thy griefs I dread;
I see thee trembling, weeping, captive led!
In Argive looms our battles to design,
And woes, of which so large a part was thine!
To bear the victor's hard commands, or bring
The weight of waters from Hyperia's spring.
There while you groan beneath the load of life,
They cry: 'Behold the mighty Hector's wife!'—
Some haughty Greek, who lives thy tears to see,
Imbitters all thy woes by naming me.
The thoughts of glory past, the present shame,
A thousand griefs shall waken at the name!
May I lie cold before that dreadful day,
Pressed with a load of monumental clay!
Thy Hector, wrapt in everlasting sleep,
Shall neither hear thee sigh, nor see thee weep."

Thus having spoke, the illustrious chief of Troy
Stretched his fond arms to clasp the lovely boy.
The babe clung crying to his nurse's breast,
Scared at the dazzling helm and nodding crest.
With secret pleasure each fond parent smiled,
And Hector hasted to relieve the child,
The glittering terrors from his brows unbound,
And placed the beaming helmet on the ground;
Then kissed the child, and, lifting high in air,
Thus to the gods preferred a father's prayer:

"O thou! whose glory fills the ethereal throne,
And all ye deathless powers! protect my son!
Grant him, like me, to purchase just renown,
To guard the Trojans, to defend the crown,
Against his country's foes the wars to wage,
And rise the Hector of the future age!
As when triumphant from successful toils
Of heroes slain, he bears the reeking spoils,
Whole hosts may hail him with deserved acclaim,
And say, 'This chief transcends his father's fame';
While pleased amidst the general shouts of Troy,
His mother's conscious heart o'erflows with joy."

He spoke, and fondly gazing on her charms,
Restored the pleasing burden to her arms;
Soft on her fragrant breast the babe she laid,
Hushed to repose, and with a smile surveyed.
The troubled pleasure soon chastised by fear,
She mingled with a smile a tender tear.
The softened chief with kind compassion viewed,
And dried the falling drops, and thus pursued:

"Andromache! my soul's far better part,
Why with untimely sorrows heaves thy heart?
No hostile hand can antedate my doom,
Till fate condemns me to the silent tomb.
Fixed is the term to all the race of earth,
And such the hard condition of our birth;
No force can then resist, no flight can save,
All sink alike, the fearful and the brave.
No more—but hasten to thy tasks at home,
There guide the spindle and direct the loom;
Me glory summons to the martial scene,
The field of combat is the sphere for men.
Where heroes war, the foremost place I claim,
The first in danger as the first in fame."

Thus having said, the glorious chief resumes
His towery helmet, black with shading plumes.
His princess parts with a prophetic sigh,
Unwilling parts, and oft reverts her eye
That streamed at every look; then, moving slow,
Sought her own palace, and indulged her woe.

—From Pope's Translation of the *Iliad*.

PROSPERO TO HIS SON-IN-LAW.

11. You do look, my son, in a moved sort,
As if you were dismayed: be cheerful, sir:
Our revels now are ended: these our actors,
As I foretold you, were all spirits, and
Are melted into air, into thin air:
And, like the baseless fabric of this vision,
The cloud-capp'd towers, the gorgeous palaces,
The solemn temples, the great globe itself,
Yea, all which it inherit, shall dissolve;
And, like this insubstantial pageant faded,
Leave not a rack behind. We are such stuff
As dreams are made of, and our little life
Is rounded with a sleep.—Shakespeare.

A FAREWELL.

12. My fairest child, I have no song to give you;
No lark could pipe to skies so dull and gray;
Yet, ere we part, one lesson I can leave you
For every day.
Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever;
Do noble things, not dream them, all day long;
And so make life, death, and that vast forever
One grand sweet song.—Charles Kingsley.

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